Integrating Media Education Into the Curriculum:

What Chinese Educators Can Learn from Ontario Education

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Abstract

This study sought to determine if and how the Ontario approach to integrating media education into the curriculum can be applied to Chinese education. The study used thematic analyses to identify the Ontario curriculum's attributes and approach to teaching media literacy, and to investigate relevant policies and national curriculum standards in Chinese compulsory education to reveal the status quo of Chinese media education. Finally, the study explored the feasibility of applying the Ontario media education model in China. Findings indicate that the Ontario model can be employed in the Chinese context, but only partly so, because current Chinese media education is limited by protectionism and restrictive policies corresponding to the use of media merely as research tools.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This is a study about improving media education in China by examining the Ontario curriculum. Media education, often called media literacy education, teaches students not only the ability to use media but also how to think critically about information in various mediated forms. Critical thinking is the core of media education. However, media education in China is underdeveloped because it focuses on the use of technology rather than on critical literacy, and no educational policy in China clearly supports the development of critical media literacy education. A comprehensive media education is neither integrated into the Chinese curriculum nor offered as an independent course for students in elementary and secondary schools. As media education is not emphasized in the Chinese curriculum, I believe the integration of new curriculum strategies can help develop media education in China. This paper will attempt to point out these strategies by drawing from and analyzing successful examples in Ontario education.

In Ontario, the practice of integrating media education into the curriculum has been ongoing for at least 20 years: “In 1987, the Ontario Ministry of Education was the first government ministry in the world to introduce media education into the curriculum" (Komaya, 2012, p. 683). Since Ontario education is a pioneer in this regard, I will use the Ontario curriculum as a base for drawing upon strategies for developing media education in curricula, and identifying which among these strategies can be used to develop media education in China.

In summary, this paper will first analyze how media education appears in the Ontario curriculum. As well, it will analyze and discuss existing research on applied strategies of integrating media education into curriculum in Ontario. Secondly, it will

analyze how Chinese curricula present media education and which kind of educational policies can support the development of media education. This analysis will inform people about the current Chinese educational environment for developing media education. Finally, according to Ontario strategies and the existing Chinese context alike, this paper will study the feasibility of employing the Ontario model in the Chinese curriculum. I will then provide suggestions for improving Chinese media education.

Background of the Problem

With the development of the Information Era, Chinese society is experiencing various changes whereby people not only can access many kinds of information but also express themselves through media. Given this current social climate in China, a relevant media literacy education would empower people with critical thinking and technical media skills. Media literacy education can enable students to change from passive information receivers to information creators and critical receivers. Such a student-centered orientation would both transform Chinese education on cultural level and would ultimately influence educational practice in Chinese society more broadly.

Studying how to integrate media education into the curriculum is important for developing Chinese media education and Chinese society as a whole. In China, "the authorities are favouring a less rigid school curriculum and realize that media literacy will promote a more interactive, socially relevant classroom which will foster much needed critical thinking skills" (Duncan, 2006, para. 1). Developing media education in the curriculum is an effective method to change current Chinese education, although there are many difficulties. Duncan (2006) points out that media education in China is newly developing, so China lacks relevant resources, such as guidelines and textbooks.

As a result, teachers are often ill-equipped and ill-trained to deliver media education. If the curriculum was to be designed with the integration of media education, teachers could get clear instructions or guidelines to teach media literacy. In other words, changing the curriculum is an effective way to develop Chinese media education, and Chinese education more broadly.

Developing media education is also in accordance with the development of Information Technology (IT) education in China. Although media literacy education has not developed in primary and middle schools, IT education has been put into practice with the goal of cultivating students' information literacy, which can be the foundation for developing media education (Gong & Zhang, 2010). Media literacy and information literacy are similar: They both concern students' literacy around accessing information from media. However, information literacy is limited to computer and Internet education, while media literacy covers more types of media, such as newspapers, broadcasting, and video (Gong & Zhang, 2010). Information literacy originates from scientific and technological perspectives. Literature on information literacy emphasizes that people should obtain and utilize information in a variety of ways (Wang, 2011) but it does not stress that people should think about media and media texts critically. Media are merely presented as tools of consumption in information literacy discourses. Therefore, the development of media education can be considered to have a broader scope than information literacy in that it focuses more on media critical thinking skills and on more types of media.

Moreover, media education is considered an approach to building a democratic society, as digital media allows audiences to be media users and creators, which

empowers people. Media corporations cannot completely dominate the information environment when people can also express their ideas or reveal information to the public effectively through digital media. In this situation, Burwell (2010) assumes that there is a possibility that "young people might be at the forefront of media democratization" (p. 383). This is because young people are often the ones who gain experience with advanced media knowledge and skills through regular social practice. In this way, they learn how to communicate effectively through various mediated forms, and utilize various media to express their opinions in the process of social decision-making. In many contexts, they are also educated systematically through school-based media education (Pungente, Duncan, & Andersen, 2005). A complementary media education can further help young people to learn how to participate in democratic decision-making through media (Buckingham, 2003).

This political function of media education is also advocated by Chinese scholars. Liao (2008) writes that the government promotes media education mostly at the "protection" level, which attempts to prevent the perceived negative influences of media. In the future, he suggests that media education in China should move to "democratic participation" and "public criticizing awareness" (p. 53). In this way, people will realize their social responsibilities and utilize media to express themselves in society, which is another method of participating in political life. In other words, media education can help Chinese people learn a new way to achieve democracy.

Statement of the Problem

Teaching media literacy is important, but it is difficult to set up a course for media education in Chinese compulsory education. Establishing an independent course for

media education will add more pressure on students and teachers in what is already a highly pressurized system. The practice of recent curriculum reform, begun in 2001, reveals this problem in high schools. The current curriculum reform requires schools to develop a school-based curriculum and reduce pressure from system-wide compulsory courses, such as Chinese, Math, and English. As a result, many high schools develop electives for students; nevertheless, the consequence of developing these electives is exerting greater pressure on students and teachers (Walker, Qian, & Zhang, 2011). Electives are not compulsory courses for students, but the assessment weight of compulsory courses is not reduced in the curriculum reform. Compulsory courses are tested courses that require students to write exams. In other words, the curriculum reform encourages schools to provide electives for students but compulsory courses still create pressure: "These exam courses continue to dominate the curriculum in all schools. What the reform actually did was to add more courses on top of these basic courses, reducing principals' ability to encourage more holistic student learning" (Walker et al., 2011, p. 397). In this case, teachers are under pressure to design curricula both for exam courses and electives, and students have less time for leisure after meeting the curriculum reform requirements. Despite one of the goals of the curriculum reform being to reduce pressure in schools, the implementation of it has done the opposite, even though "the Chinese government required primary and secondary schools to increase students' leisure time, cancel extra classes outside school and remove score ranking" (Li & Li, 2010, p. 211). Accordingly, the consequences of designing media education as an independent course would likely be the same as the negative effects from the introduction of electives in the curriculum reform.

In China, integrating media education into established subject areas can be seen as an alternative method to teaching media literacy (Bai & Yan, 2008; Gong & Zhang, 2010). Gong and Zhang (2010) suggest that media education can be integrated into Chinese, English, Politics, and IT courses, but they have only provided simple examples of curricular integration. Although their study shows that media literacy education can be integrated into the curriculum, they have not provided detailed strategies of how to implement media literacy, and the curriculum reform they suggest is not systematic or comprehensive. Consequently, it is useful to explore pragmatic strategies for integrating ideas from the Ontario curriculum into Chinese media education, which can benefit the development of China's media education.

If media education is integrated into exam courses, both students and teachers in China will value media literacy more than if it is an elective course. The pressure from exams courses weakens the effect of electives. Chinese teachers and principals regard the preparation for high school exams as a priority because students' scores on exams also have great impact on their overall evaluation, which relates to their career development and promotions (Liu & Teddlie, 2003; Walker et al., 2011). In the highly competitive exam-based schooling culture in China, both students and teachers value exam courses more than electives. Therefore, integrating media education into basic courses can better promote media education.

Gong and Zhang (2010) also believe that learning from foreign curriculum settings and textbooks is merely a shortcut for developing media education in the Chinese curriculum. In this regard, Yuan (2010) writes that learning from other countries should be based on critical and scientific perspectives as well as on the development of Chinese

society, and that Chinese media environments are different from other countries in many aspects. If Chinese educators simply transplant ideas from foreign education, Yuan suggests, it can lead to problematic situations. However, learning from foreign countries does not mean Chinese educators can use their strategies without considering the Chinese context.

Research Questions

In analyzing the Ontario curriculum, the questions I will focus on include: How does the curriculum instruct teachers to teach media education systematically? How does the curriculum organize and balance the content of teaching critical and creative abilities? Does the media education curriculum reflect certain models or theories of curriculum design? If so, what kind of model or theories does it adopt? Are there any central attributes or features of media education in the Ontario curriculum? What factors influence how media education is presented in the Ontario curriculum?

In analyzing the policies and national standards of curriculum to find out whether China can support integrating media education into the curriculum, the questions I will ask include: What is the policy for curriculum reform in China? Which parts of the policy are related to media? How do they connect to media education? Which parts of the policy support student-centered media education in the curriculum? What kinds of difficulties appear when those policies are implemented into the classroom? Based on the current media environment in China, what should be emphasized in Chinese media education?

After analyzing the data gathered from the questions above, I will explore strategies for integrating media education into the Ontario curriculum and the Chinese educational environments to develop media education. I will also attempt to discover

whether strategies from the Ontario curriculum are suitable to develop Chinese media education, and will address the questions: What Ontario media education strategies can be addressed in Chinese education, and what strategies cannot? And why is this so? By answering these questions, discrepancies in transferring Ontario education methods to Chinese education methods will be identified, and I will concentrate on providing suggestions in light of what I uncover in my analysis and relevant literature review.

Rationale

In China, most people who study media education are scholars from communication and journalism programs. Some educators believe that such scholars in communication do not know "education," so they believe that these scholars cannot study media education properly (Liao, 2008). Accordingly, this paper studies media education from a resolutely educational perspective, which can provide pragmatic ideas about media education at the school level and will be useful for promoting media education to China in general.

As Wang (2011) mentions, the study of media education in China is changing from introducing concepts of media education to implementing media education in the classroom. In order to promote media education in China, simply translating or introducing foreign research about media education is not enough. This study is important because it will specifically investigate the implementation of media education within curricula, which will correspond to the current trends for studying media education in China. Further, it will help to meet the needs of a developing Chinese education system.

This study can help educators know how external educational policies can influence the development of media education within Chinese educational environments. It will provide insight into how media education is integrated in the curriculum from a Chinese perspective, and show any difficulties of and opportunities for developing media education that perhaps other scholars from other countries may have not taken into account when studying Chinese education.

Media education can benefit educational reform in China, and offer an approach to changing traditional exam-oriented teaching and learning. Since media education is focused on cultivating students' critical literacy and promoting student-centered education, this research can help change the traditional rote learning and teacher-centered schooling in Chinese compulsory education. After the long-term development of media education in curricula, it is possible that critical literacy education and student-centered education will penetrate all curricula. Creativity in Chinese education could then be emphasized more than in the past and people who are influenced by this kind of education can practice more independent thinking. Students can be wiser users of media in the Information Era, which can also enhance their competence in society.

Liao (2008) believes that promoting media education in China can facilitate the development of democracy in society. I will argue that since authoritative media are not the only information sources in China, and since people have relatively more freedom to express themselves and choose what to believe than in early time, media literacy education can promote democratic aims. It can do so by teaching people how to express themselves through media and how to adapt to free information environments as independent and critical thinkers. In these ways, media education can be beneficial to

Chinese society. By combining the merits of education from the West with Chinese education, media education can gradually change Chinese culture in a good way.

Moreover, educational policy makers can learn more about how existing policies can influence the introduction of new ideas in Chinese education. By way of example, this study can also help scholars think of new ideas in developing media education for their own countries. In other words, this study is meaningful both for Chinese educators and scholars in other countries seeking to improve their own media education practices.

Limitations of the Study

This major research paper is not without limitations. As Wang (2011) points out, learning about media education from successful worldwide examples is helpful, but simply following or imitating others will not benefit media education in China. On the contrary, utilizing strategies from successful examples of other countries to develop media education in China can only be beneficial if one considers various causal factors; for instance, whether or not the curriculum is designed for a particular cultural context and educational system.

In this regard, I will cautiously recognize that the approach to developing media education in the Ontario curriculum may not hold true for a Chinese context. Education develops from a particular social circumstance: cultural, political, financial, and demographic factors influence education, which makes it differ from context to context. A country cannot adopt a strategy of developing education from other contexts without considering its own social contexts. For example, Toronto has strategies for developing multicultural education because of its demographic features. However, a monocultural

country cannot adopt those same strategies because of its own particular sociocultural demographics.

This research does not focus primarily on exploring the influences of different cultures and education systems in the two contexts. The data do not show the financial environments in Ontario education and Chinese education, which also impacts the development of media education. Some specific problems that are caused by local cultures or education disparities in China may not be taken into account. Therefore, what I claim about strategies in Ontario education that can be implemented in Chinese education is partial. My claims may not correspond to the total educational environment in China, since the environment is varied. My suggestions are best seen as kinds of hypotheses in theory but not complete pragmatic strategies for developing media education in China. All these hypotheses should be put into practice and then revised again. This practice–revise cycle can localize foreign theories within Chinese educational environments.

In addition, it is difficult to reduce bias in this document-based research because the data only come from documents that are analyzed by the researcher alone. When codes are developed and used in analyzing documents, biases will influence how the text is coded and classified. Errors will appear due to unseen expectations and personal motives: “At times, people see and hear what they expect rather than what is” (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2010, p. 25). Therefore, though this research attempts to standardize curricular codes, bias cannot be eliminated completely. However, if more researchers participate in similar research, individual biases may be minimized.

I believe further studies could center on qualitative case study research, which can provide insight into the localized practice of developing media education in Chinese educational environments. In this way, problems and difficulties of developing media education in real schools could be discovered. Additionally, after the plan of developing media education in curriculum is improved according to those problems or difficulties, media education can be developed on a larger scale in a city or province. Qualitative and quantitative research can then be conducted anew at this stage, providing more data to further develop media education in China.

Outline of the Remainder of the Document

There are four additional chapters in this paper: a literature review, methodology and research design, presentation of results, and lastly, discussion. Chapter 2 outlines a literature review that deepens the definitions of media literacy and media education. Chapter 3 elucidates the study's methodology, which elaborates on how I collected and analyzed data in the Ontario curriculum, Chinese policies, and Chinese national standards of curriculum. Chapter 4 presents and analyzes the research results, and illuminates the strategies of integrating media education into the Ontario curriculum as well as the current Chinese educational environments for developing media education. Using my research findings, chapter 5 presents a culminating discussion. This discussion considers whether strategies of developing media education in the Ontario curricula can be applied within Chinese curricula, and how these can be applied along with several suggestions to find ways to improve Chinese media education.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Media education has been studied by numerous scholars throughout the decades and with the development of its study, definitions are constantly changing, which influences what students learn in studying media literacy. Though the definitions vary from country to country, they also share some similarities. As this research will analyze media education in Ontario curricula and Chinese educational policies, the definitions of media education and media literacy will be identified in North American and Chinese contexts in order to clearly analyze the ensuing documents that comprise my data. Several approaches to teaching media literacy will also be presented through this literature review in order to clarify specifically what people should learn in media education.

With respect to studying the implementation of media education, there is little research that examines how media education is applied in curricula. Even though many Western countries have developed media education for decades, the strategies or practices of developing media education in curricula are not well researched. Most research studies focus overwhelmingly on pedagogies and effects, which generally concern cross-disciplinary implementation. Since media education is not systematically introduced in Chinese education, little research shows how media education is implemented in curricula and classrooms. Therefore, this chapter will focus on revealing the status quo of media education in China, the cultural and political influences impacting Chinese education, and the difficulties of promoting critical literacy and student-centered education in Chinese curriculum reform. The difficulties and problems of developing media education in China will also be explored. This literature review also looks at media

education in Ontario, with special emphasis on the Ontario curriculum, and this chapter explores theories of curriculum implementation in order to provide context for curriculum development suggestions proposed later in the study.

Media Education and Media Literacy

In its most advanced forms, media education is concerned not only with teaching through media, but also with learning and teaching about media, which cultivates students' media literacy (Buckingham, 2003). Media literacy has many definitions. Buckingham (2003) writes that, "the term 'media literacy' refers to the knowledge, skills and competencies that are required in order to use and interpret media" (p. 36). This is a profound definition that reveals common characteristics in media education across countries. One characteristic is about teaching students how to use media, and the other concerns how to understand media, especially information from media. These two characteristics are embedded in American and Ontarian media education.

The U.S.-based National Association for Media Literacy Education (NAMLE, 2013) defines media literacy as "the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate information in a variety of forms, including print and non-print messages" (para. 1). In Canada, the Association of Media Literacy (2012) states that "Media literacy is the knowledge and skills necessary to understand and use the codes and conventions of a wide variety of media forms and genres appropriately, effectively and ethically" (para. 1). These two definitions both view media literacy as the ability to analyze and use various media texts. These definitions influenced Chinese media education studies.

In China, there is no official definition of media literacy or media education, but Chinese scholars define them in a similar way. Gong and Zhang (2010) write that the

purpose of media literacy education is to cultivate learners' ability to understand mass media wisely; teach learners to use, analyze, and evaluate various media information; thereby facilitating the construction of morality and critical thinking. Likewise, Lee (2010) notes that "In Hong Kong media literacy is defined as a life skill which enables young people to critically understand, analyze, use and influence the media" (p. 3).

Though these definitions of media literacy vary slightly, their main ideas are similar. They all indicate that media literacy is a kind of multidimensional cognitive skill-set that involves one's ability to critically interpret mediated information. In addition, most definitions about media literacy emphasize critical thinking about information (Komaya, 2012; Schwarz, 2005). In this way, media literacy is considered another form of critical literacy (Buckingham, 2003). It requires students to have the ability to critically identify hidden information from media because all media transfer information to audiences for particular purposes.

Media represents the world in particular ways. "Facts" in the media are different from the so-called facts themselves. The facts in media convey particular values or opinions because people construct information through media language with their own perspectives. According to Hall (1980), media have particular ideological roles; therefore, dominant ideological representations and definitions in media are questioned in media studies. Herman and Chomsky's (2002) research on the U. S. mass media revealed that the news is strongly influenced by economic and political interests and has predictable biases. Scheibe and Rogow (2012) suggest critical literacy in media enables students to see structures and patterns in media and decide whether they accept agendas presented in

media. Students are required to critically analyze how information from media relates to justice or equity in media education (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012).

Some studies emphasize that using media is the core aim of media literacy (Gut & Wan, 2008; Scheibe & Rogow, 2012; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2011). This does not mean media education concerns only teaching people how to use media; it indicates also that people should use both technical and critical analysis skills from media literacy to participate as citizens in a mediated world. Such studies stress people's attitudes and behaviours toward using media knowledge and skills as the main goals of media literacy. Scheibe and Rogow (2012) suggest that through media literacy that focuses on practice, people will exhibit skills and knowledge to access, understand, be aware of, analyze, evaluate, create, and reflect information from media, and to participate in interactive media activities. Gut and Wan (2008) view media literacy as "the ability to choose, to challenge and question, and to use the media actively and consciously for one's own purposes" (p. 182).

Similarly, UNESCO (2011) posits that "Information and media literacy enables people to interpret and make informed judgments as users of information and media, as well as to become skillful creators and producers of information and media messages in their own right" (para. 2). According to these suggestions, media education is therefore teaching people to use media knowledge in order to empower them.

All these definitions reflect different concerns in media literacy education. Some of them view media literacy as being similar to language literacy, though focusing instead on media texts; some emphasize critical literacy in media education; and some stress using media actively as the core aim of media education. The definitions directly

influence how media education is put into practice. My work aims to extend these definitions by thinking about them in a Chinese context. In China, critical media education—as described in the aforementioned definitions—is limited within the curriculum to the extent that critical literacy and empowering uses of media are absent. This means the definitions outlined above do not apply in current Chinese media education practices. Yet the need to develop critical media literacy education is becoming necessary given social changes in China. From both educational and political perspectives, media education can greatly influence Chinese society. Studying how the Chinese context relates to media education described here can help extend such definitions to include Chinese variables. In this way, the possibility of developing Chinese media education can be more fully developed.

Pedagogical Approaches

According to the aforementioned definitions, teaching and learning media literacy includes developing both critical and creative abilities with respect to interpreting and in some cases creating media. As media literacy now refers to a kind of critical literacy, current approaches to teaching media education tend to focus on critical analysis. Buckingham (2003) defines four fields for analyzing media in schools: production, language, representation, and audiences. He states that studying media can have different purposes and pedagogies according to different aspects of media. In the production stage, students can research media companies and study how information is produced. In the language stage, students can learn textual analysis and observation in order to study the complexity of media language. In the representation stage, students also utilize textual analysis to discover the underlying value and ideology from media texts, so the political

ideologies or commercial purposes from information producers may be discovered. In the audience stage, students study how media industries operate on audiences through different tactics of transmitting information to them (Buckingham, 2003, pp. 53-61). As media literacy is defined as a critical thinking ability skill here, Buckingham's four fields of analyzing media intend to help students to discover the implicit information which media do not explicitly share but that audiences may accept unconsciously.

Canadian scholar John Pungente (1987) introduced eight key media literacy concepts used as tools for critical thinking about media, which help indicate what hidden information students should discover in media texts. These concepts include constructions of negotiated meanings in media texts, different types of media implications, forms, and contents of media. The Ontario curriculum is strongly influenced by this body of scholarship with respect to its approach to teaching and learning media education. This idea is not only used in pedagogy but also integrated into the Ontario curriculum.

In the United States, the NAMLE (2007) developed key questions for analyzing media ideas, which are similar to Pungente's and Buckingham's ideas. Those key questions are classified in three fields: audience and authorship; messages and meaning; and representations and reality. The NAMLE suggests that teachers should develop a dialogue with students by asking key questions of them, which helps students to ask their own questions about media messages and to reflect on them (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012).

This approach of teaching and learning media education is student-centered because "there is a strong emphasis on students sharing their own knowledge and opinions, and forming their own conclusions about the issues" (Buckingham, 2003, p. 69).

Moreover, in the Information Era, students experience media culture in their daily life. They are consumers and producers of media culture. Therefore, the pedagogy in media education ought to be student-centered rather than top-down teacher-centered. According to Kenway and Bullen (2008), teaching media literacy should make the analysis of the political and critical issues in media pleasurable. Given that many students enjoy media culture, the critique in teacher-centered media education may destroy their pleasures of using media or learning. This can make media education less attractive to students. Kenway and Bullen write that "For schools and teachers, this means acknowledging both students' agency as producers of their own identities and their emotional or affective investment in, and consumption of, media culture and advertising images in the process of identity construction" (2008, p. 22). This kind of pedagogy may have a great impact on the development of Chinese media education, since the recent curriculum reform in China endeavours to promote inquiry-based teaching and learning (Dai, Gerbino, & Daley, 2011).

Integrated Curriculum

Why should media education be integrated within the curriculum? There are several advantages to integrated media education with other subjects. A cross-curriculum approach to media education can integrate classroom knowledge with the contemporary life of children (Semali, 2000). Moreover, it can promote cross-disciplinary education because many activities of media education require students to have competencies in literacy and numeracy, technical and problem-solving skills, and research abilities (Buckingham, 2003). This curriculum-driven approach can also save time and resources. Scheibe and Rogow (2012) write that "how to implement media literacy education in

classrooms already pressed for time and resources" (p. 3) is a practical concern, which is the reason why they integrate media education into core existing curricula. Scheibe and Rogow also demonstrate general methods to integrate media education into classroom life; however, their suggestions are mostly pedagogical and tend to combine teaching with media and teaching about media rather than deal with approaches of integrating media education into curricula.

Conceptual learning is adopted by many countries for integrating media education into the curriculum, such as in the United Kingdom and Canada, and "most media studies curricula are defined in terms of four key concepts: media language, representation, institution, and audience" (Partington & Buckingham, 2012, p. 8). This conceptual learning can connect students' existing knowledge to the new knowledge about media (Buckingham, 2003).

Through studying such concepts, students can learn about various media within a theoretical framework. However, this kind of learning has a drawback, because it causes ambiguity in what students really learn. Research shows that some students use conceptual terminology to express themselves in order to display that they do learn concepts, but they may not achieve depth with respect to the meanings of those concepts. Additionally, what they say in school often does not reflect their real thinking (Partington & Buckingham, 2012). Therefore, the Ontario curriculum, which adopts conceptual learning in its design, is not perfect for teaching media education. But it does show a feasible approach to integrating media education into different subjects. In the analysis of the Ontario curriculum, I will also partially analyze the place of this conceptual learning in its media education.

Media Education in China

Media education has been a popular topic for Chinese scholars in the past two decades. Most studies introduce the concept of media education in China but do not explore the topic more fully (Xu, 2009), perhaps because media education is not really put into practice in China. In 2001, the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (MEPRC) launched the eighth curriculum reform with the document *Outline of Basic Education Curriculum Reform*, which required that curriculum reform should emphasize media education (Zhong, 2006). However, this reform cannot promote media education successfully because the single relevant course put forward (i.e., the IT course) cannot be wholly considered media education. It lacks depth and breadth because it only stresses teaching students the skills to use media but not critical analysis (Shao, 2006). This IT course is compulsory, which aims to cultivate students' interests and awareness of IT, teaching them to understand and obtain basic knowledge and skills of IT, and to understand that the development and application of IT can exert profound influences on people's daily lives.

Liao (2008) writes that "Although the current national curriculum in mainland China contains the purpose of media education, mostly concealed under other themes, no clear media literacy education has been brought forward, which is quite negative in promoting it comprehensively and systematically" (p. 54). For example, the curricula of some subjects contain little media literacy content and media literacy is not taught systematically (Wang, 2011). In other words, media education in the Chinese curriculum emphasizes teaching technical skills but does not fully cultivate people's critical literacy, both systematically and explicitly.

Challenges for Chinese Educators

The development of media education encounters various obstacles in China. Since effective media education is student-centered education, it challenges teacher-centered pedagogies in traditional Chinese education. The difficulties of developing student-centered media education can be discovered in the recent curriculum reform. Curriculum reform started in 2001, which intended to transform education according to idealized models favouring active learning, integrated approaches to knowledge construction, and inquiry-based pedagogy, and it also attempted to connect school learning to "the broader scientific, technological, and social developments and student experience and interests" (Dai et al., 2011, p. 140). According to the content of the recent curriculum reform, teachers should play facilitator roles in giving students guidance toward creating knowledge rather than receiving it. This curriculum reform shares the same attributes as the student-centered and inquiry-based education valued within media education. As a result, media education is aligned with recent curriculum reform in China, since media education requires students to create shared meanings and express their own opinions (Buckingham, 2003). Furthermore, media education should allow students to construct their own identities in its teaching and learning processes. In this circumstance, media education and recent curriculum reform in China will have similar challenges in their development. Even though this curriculum reform does not completely introduce media education, the problems that emerge from the development of student-centered education in schools can reveal part of the problem of developing Chinese media education.

Again, one challenge of developing media education is the pressures from the evaluation system. Liao (2008) believes that educators in primary and secondary schools

shoulder a heavy burden and face added obstacles in developing media education within the constraints of the Chinese education system. Teachers and students are pressured to obtain high scores on exams, especially the College Entrance Examination (CEE). The scores in the CEE specifically decide whether students can enter universities or not and as briefly noted in the previous chapter, this has a great impact on students' social and economic futures. As Romanowski (2006) explains,

> For Chinese teachers, the key issue is that the exam dictates the curriculum; the exam prevents teachers from addressing other knowledge and skills in fear of failing to adequately prepare students. Inevitably, the curriculum is reduced to only what is covered on tests, in turn limiting students' access to knowledge and skills. This intense obsession with testing, especially with the CEE, dictates all aspects of education in China. The result is that Chinese students can master and memorize incredible amounts of knowledge and information and are excellent at preparing for exams, but lack the ability to critically think, develop their own opinions, and engage in creative activities. (pp. 77-78)

This idea indicates that under the high pressure of exams, teachers in China may not be willing to teach media literacy as an independent subject which is not included in the CEE. For example, after curriculum reform in 2004, the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission developed local curriculum which classified courses into three categories: basic, extended, and research courses (Walker et al., 2011). The basic courses are included in the central examinations, while other courses are not examinable, such as the media education course. In this case, teachers were not motivated to design and teach

the extended and research courses because the emphasis was more on the basic courses covering the CEE (Walker et al., 2011).

Moreover, as Romanowski (2006) mentions, in China the teaching and learning model for exams encourages students to memorize information, but media education cultivates students' critical thinking. This indicates that media education poses a challenge to the traditional learning model in Chinese education. For example, the eighth curriculum reform in China promoted inquiry-based teaching and learning but teachers did not train very well to deal with specific problems in their classrooms (Ryan, Kang, Mitchell, & Erickson, 2009). Some research shows that even if teachers did learn inquiry-based pedagogy, they were not willing to put it into practice because they believe transmitting information to students with the lecture-recitation model is a more effective approach to preparing students for exams (Dai et al., 2011).

This teaching model of transmitting knowledge to students dominates Chinese education, and is a part of Chinese culture. Research shows that Beijing teachers view explaining things clearly as the most important quality for a good teacher (Hayhoe, 2008), and this reveals student-centered education in curriculum reform or media education contests dominant Chinese pedagogical models.

Although promoting media education is difficult, educators should make the effort to develop it. It is an important part of curriculum reform in China, and it can help meet the needs of social development. Preus (2007) writes that "The Chinese government is making every effort to reduce the emphasis on exams because it is believed that China must foster creativity and innovation to compete in the global economy" (p. 116). In other words, the development of media education is in accordance with the developing

trend of Chinese education. Media education requires students to learn how to create their own media texts in order to communicate with other effectively (Buckingham, 2003). This indicates that media education can be a pragmatic approach to cultivating students' creativities and to satisfy social needs.

Media Education in Ontario

Canada has long been considered a leader in developing media education (Bai & Yan, 2008; Komaya, 2012; Pungente et al., 2005; Yuan, 2010). Media education in Canada began with screen education in the 1960s and developed quickly in the 1990s. In Ontario specifically, media education was influenced by the Association of Media Literacy, which published a Media Education Resource Guide for teachers in 1986. Media education was gradually integrated into the English curriculum. In 1995, the Ontario Ministry of Education specifically outlined learning expectations of media literacy in "Listening and Speaking, Reading, Writing, Viewing and Representation" (Pungente et al., 2005, p. 143). Since 1998, media education has been part of the curriculum for Grades 1 to 12.

Media education in the Ontario curriculum is integrated into different subjects, and is presented in different ways. "The primary concern of Canadian media educators includes the transmission of the common key concepts underlying media literacy; the importance of audience; media and globalization; critical marketing; and media education and digital literacy" (Pungente et al., 2005, pp. 150-151). This demonstrates several topics that the Canadian media education includes in its curriculum, which also influences what subjects are included in Ontario media education. Recent research suggests that the Ontario curriculum, Grades 1 to 8, link media literacy education to

citizenship education in two aspects: “practical (competence in media production skills) and intellectual (the capacity to understand and deconstruct the media)” (Ferguson, 2011, p. 143). On the other hand, critical thinking about the media with respect to exploring social conflict and power is, according to this research, limited in the Ontario curriculum (Ferguson, 2011). Nevertheless, though media education in the Ontario curriculum is far from perfect, it demonstrates how media education can be integrated into curricula systematically and comprehensively. Hence, studying media education in the Ontario curriculum can also benefit the development of media education in the Chinese curriculum.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

This chapter will describe the study's research method. Moreover, a brief literature review of this methodology will be provided in order to articulate why this method suits the purpose of this research. Since this paper focuses on analysis of textual data, this chapter provides a detailed description of the data collection and data analysis.

Research Methodology and Design

Given that this research will focus on studying the Ontarian and Chinese curricula and Chinese policies, the prospective objects in the research are relevant documents, which are text-based. The answers to my research questions will be found by analyzing that textual data. Therefore, this research will adopt a document-based methodology that incorporates aspects of textual data analysis, such as thematic analysis and grounded theory. Thematic analysis is the main method in this research, "a data reduction and analysis strategy by which qualitative data are segmented, categorized, summarized, and reconstructed in a way that captures the important concepts within the data set" (Ayres, 2008, p. 868). Thematic analysis is often an approach to grounded theory. Some strategies of analyzing data within grounded theory will be used in analyzing the data in this research. Grounded theory is "a process for developing empirical theory from qualitative research that consists of a set of tasks and underlying principles" (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011, p. 208). This research will adopt several analytical strategies from grounded theory. The strategies of analysis in grounded theory include description, comparison, categorization, conceptualization, and theory development (Hennink et al., 2011), some of which also serve as tools for analyzing themes. Drawing from thematic analysis, textual data will be classified into different categories. Strategies for analyzing

data in grounded theory will be used to systematically examine the relationship and pattern among those categories.

Content analysis, which can be an effective method of textual analysis when study goals involve tabulating frequencies and building quantitative codes, is often used in curriculum study research. For example, one research study in Turkey adopts content analysis to analyze physics, chemistry, and biology curricula in order to find out the distribution of different scientific literacy themes within the texts (Erdoğan & Köseoğlu, 2012). I applied content analysis to analyze the Ontario curriculum, but discovered that this type of research could not provide significant data to achieve my research goal because it could not illustrate how curriculum themes connect to relevant non-media-education content as it can in thematic analysis. In other words, I found that content analysis can be so self-contained as not to allow for inquiry into how outside knowledge bears upon the content being studied. The methodology in this research therefore adopts thematic analysis to discover how different themes of media literacy are integrated in curricula. Through thematic analysis, the details of curriculum will be examined, as will details of how the themes of media literacy are incorporated with other non-media curriculum content.

This study's methodological process has three steps, each with different foci. The first step is analyzing the Ontario curriculum, which focuses on discovering education through which education is integrated into the Ontario curriculum. The textual data in this database (i.e., the Ontario curriculum) are coded and classified into different themes of media literacy. Thematic analysis will be adopted in this step in order to discover what themes of media literacy are presented in the curricula and how they are integrated into

particular subjects. The locations and distributions of different themes in the curricula are presented in Table 1 in order to illustrate their distribution clearly. In this step, the data are coded according to different themes I have named. After textual data are classified, strategies of analyzing data in grounded theory are later used to examine the relationship among different themes (see Table 2). Consequently, the complete integration of media education within the Ontario curriculum is revealed.

In the second step, the objective is to analyze the Chinese context for developing media education. There are two databases in this step: one is the Chinese national standards of curriculum and the other is the relevant educational policies in China. Because there are no formalized Chinese curriculum documents as there are in western systems like Ontario's, the national standards of curriculum can be regarded as curricula, because they show the essential knowledge and requirements which schools are responsible to teach and achieve. As the content of national standards of curriculum is similar to curriculum design, the method of analyzing it will be similar with the procedure of analyzing the Ontario curriculum, so the thematic analysis and analytical strategies from grounded theory will be applied here. My analysis of this database aims to reveal how themes relating to media education are presented in Chinese curriculum. Regarding educational policies in China, thematic analysis will again be adopted in analyzing this database. The purpose of this analysis is to discover which parts of Chinese policies can support the development of media education in curricula. In this step, through the analysis of national curriculum standards and relevant educational policies in China, the Chinese context for developing media education is revealed.

Table 1

General Inductive Categories: The Ontario Curriculum

Codes	Thematic categories	Key words appearing in the Ontario curriculum	Characteristics
A	Critical Thinking	Critical thinking, assess, analyze, evaluate, detect, forecast, predict, estimate, infer, identify biases or values or points of view, interpret or explain implied information	Teaching and learning how to analyze hidden media information
B	Research Skills	Research, collect, gather, inquiry, locate information, create files, investigate, obtain	Teaching and learning how to access media information
C	Communication	Communicate, interpret, present, express, represent, voice opinion	Teaching and learning how to present ideas and communicate through media with others
D	Media Knowledge	Media technology, communication technology	Teaching and learning knowledge about media technology, such as features or development of media
E	Other	Responds, access, express, utilize media	Contents relate to the usage of media, but are not included in the above categories. For example, they are included encouraging students to read media texts, identify purposes of reading media texts and express their feeling about media

Table 2

Specific Inductive Categories: The Ontario Curriculum

Categories	Codes	Definitions
Category 1—Labels		
1	Information Technology	The content of learning and teaching which fall under the label of Information Technology or Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the curriculum.
2	Media literacy	The content of learning and teaching about media in media education. The content relates to multimedia, mass media or new media.
Category 2—Types of media		
a	Mass media	Traditional mass media that includes television, video, newspapers, magazines and movies.
b	New media	New media that includes the Internet, computers, cell-phones and multimedia software.
Category 3—Critical thinking of media		
<1>	Audiences	Teaching and learning how media are aimed at audiences and how audiences respond to media
<2>	Language	Teaching and learning about media language, which includes how media texts are coded and techniques of media communication. This code refers to how students learn how to understand different forms of media texts.
<3>	Production	Teaching and learning about recognition of the media industry including who produces media texts and how to regulate and distribute media texts. The functions or attributes of different media forms.

Table 2 (cont'd)

Specific Inductive Categories: The Ontario Curriculum

Category 3—Critical thinking of media (cont'd)		
<4>	Representation	Teaching and learning the differences between the realistic world and the world in media texts. Students learned how to analyze the bias, objectivity, stereotypes and influences in media representation.
Category 4—Topics of media		
(1)	History	The history of media technology.
(2)	Culture	The culture influences and roles of media
(3)	Function	The function of media
(4)	Politics	The political influences and function of media, which also includes the laws or policies of media.
(5)	Attributes	Attributes of different media forms
(6)	Ethic and Safety	Ethics issues relating to media, and the safe usage of media
(7)	Health	Healthy information from media
(8)	Economy	The economic influences and roles of media
(9)	Art	The media's functions and influences in art
Category 5—Critical thinking of sources of information		
i	Reliability	Trustworthiness of media information that involves whether this information is reliable
ii	Credibility	The quality of information that involves accuracy, expertise and authority.

In this study's final section, the patterns of media education implementation across the Ontario curriculum will be examined with a view toward the Chinese context, in order to determine if the model of developing media education in the Ontario curriculum can be used to improve media education in China. Likewise, the results of analyzing the Chinese context will reveal which aspects of Ontarian media education can or cannot apply within Chinese curricula. Based on these explorations, several suggestions for developing media education in China will be provided.

Pilot Studies

Thematic analysis is frequently used in qualitative research to achieve various goals. Attard and Coulson (2011) utilize thematic analysis to examine negative and positive aspects of patient communication in online support groups for Parkinson's disease. They analyze online communication texts and their themes, and analyze different themes independently. In this research, themes are classified into negative or positive categories, and the attributes of these categories are suggested. Similarly, Sawkill, Sparkes, and Brown (2013) use thematic analysis to examine textual data from interviews in order to get a better understanding of beliefs about gaining weight. The thematic analysis in these studies is utilized to discover weight gaining belief themes, but stop short of analyzing relationships among the themes. In other words, sometimes thematic analysis is integrated into other qualitative research methods in order to make connections among themes, while sometimes it is not. Conaway and Wardrope (2010) use thematic analysis with grounded theory to compare corporate communication between U.S. and Latin American companies, and they develop a central theme before building relations among other themes. They rank themes according to relevant word

frequency counts and numbers of letters which helps them discover themes that companies value as most important. In this way, relations in separate and among data themes are revealed. Likewise, they discover what attributes U.S. and Latin American companies have and whether they have similarities.

In my research, I similarly use thematic analysis to discover what aspects of media literacy are emphasized across the entire Ontario curriculum and whether media education in the curriculum involves cultivating critical thinking. Regarding the Chinese policy data, I attempt to figure out if educational policies can provide support to develop media education in China. Therefore, as in the above studies, thematic analysis can help identify different parts of media literacy education and different aspects of policy support.

Data Collection

The data in this paper derive from the Ontario curriculum, the Chinese national standard of curriculum, and relevant Chinese policies. These are particular documents from the Ontario Ministry of Education and the MEPRC. The data in Ontario can be found on the website of the Ontario Ministry of Education. The sum of curricula in which integrated media education are found are in arts education, Canadian and World Studies, Language, English, Health and Physical Education, Healthy Active Living Education, Healthy for Life, Social Sciences and the Humanities, Technological Education (Media Smarts, 2012). Not all the courses in these Ontario curricula are analyzed because the ultimate goal of this research is to integrate media education in Chinese curricula. More specifically this research attempts to discover how to integrate media education into existing courses. In the purpose of achieving this goal, the documents from Ontario education are selected in relation to the Chinese contexts. Some courses in the Ontario

curriculum are not analyzed in this research if such courses are in the Ontario curricula but not represented in Chinese education, such as Construction Technology courses, Custom Woodworking, courses and Green Industries courses. For the same reason and given that this study focuses on the integration of media education across curriculum, "Media Study" courses are not included in this research. Even though Media Study courses or Communication Technology courses focus on media education, they are independent courses in Ontario that do not exist in Chinese curricula for compulsory education.

According to the Chinese national standard of curriculum in Grades 1 to 9, the subjects in the Chinese curriculum are Chinese, English, Japanese, Russian, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, history, geography, technology, art, music, visual art, health and physical education (MEPRC, 2011j). As mentioned above, the Ontario courses I study in this research correspond to those existing courses in China. This research analyzes the Ontario curricula of Canadian and world studies, Language, English, Health and Physical Education, and Technological Education. These courses in the curricula span: Economics, Geography, History, Law, Politics, English, Exploring Technology, Computer Technology, Dance, Drama, Music, Visual Arts, Health and Physical Education, Health Active Living education, and Healthy for Life. As these courses in Ontario are similar to ones in Chinese education, they can provide information on how to integrate media education into existing courses in China.

With respect to Chinese education, the data include relevant documents about educational policies and the national curriculum standards from the website of the MERPC. The national curriculum standards are not a national curriculum, but they

provide standards for teachers to develop their own curriculum. Their content concerns requirements and goals for teaching and learning in different stages that are similar to a curriculum. The latest Chinese national curriculum standards from Grades 1 to 9 were published in 2011, which can be found on the websites of the MERPC (http://www.moe.gov.cn). The Grades 10 to 12 curriculum standards are not included in this database because the MERPC has not changed these documents since they were published as tentative documents in 2003. This indicates the curriculum standards for Grades 10 to 12 may not reflect recent educational developments in China. Moreover, these documents cannot be retrieved from the MEPRC website. Therefore, this research will not analyze the curriculum standards from Grades 10 to 12. In addition, the policy documents in this research mainly relate to educational informationalization and curriculum reform. Educational informationalization refers to promoting IT in education, which includes encouraging teachers to teach with IT and cultivating students to utilize IT in their studies (MEPRC, 2012a). To enhance this part of the study, relevant research from outside literatures will be collected in order to form a comprehensive picture of educational environments for promoting media education in China.

Data Processing and Analysis

In order to determine how to improve media education in the Chinese curriculum, the documents in this research are divided into three databases sets and analyzed with different purposes. The first database refers to the Ontario curriculum and its analysis will focus on its pattern of integrating media education. The second database consists of Chinese national curriculum standards and the third database includes Chinese educational policies relating to media education. The analysis of the

second and the third database focuses on revealing whether China's education environment can support media education in the Chinese curriculum.

Again, thematic analysis is used to code all of the textual data from these three databases. Next, the codes and themes developed during my first reading of the documents are "developed to represent the identified themes and applied or linked to raw data as summary markers for later analysis" (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012, p. 10). The development of my codes were influenced by Pungente's (1987) previously cited key concepts and Buckingham's (2003) four fields in media literacy, such as "language," "audience," and "production." According to the textual data and the definition of media literacy, inductive themes were then developed. In a later repeated reading, all of the textual data were recoded. During this process, a codebook was produced to give clear descriptions to different themes and codes in order to analyze all documents in a standard manner (see Appendices A and B).

Data Processing in the Ontario Curriculum

The thematic categories yielded from the first database represent all references to media education and Information Technology education found in the Ontario curriculum (Tables 1 and 2). Two sets of inductive categories are used together to summarize the texts so that one set of categories is related to the other. The first set of categories presents general inductive categories (Table 1). The second set of categories presents specific inductive categories (Table 2). The second set of categories is used to give specificity to the first set of categories. For comprehensiveness, the specific inductive categories (Table 2) are best not read alone, but instead read in view of the general inductive categories (Table 1). All codes from the specific inductive categories

stem from the general inductive categories. Themes in this paper indicate a group of codes which share the same characteristics.

With respect to general inductive categories, five thematic categories were generated in the Ontario curriculum, including research skills, critical thinking skills, communication skills, media knowledge, and other (see Table 1). In Table 1, A, B, C, and D refer to critical thinking skills (A), research skills (B), communication skills (C), and media knowledge (D).

As the general themes (illustrated in Table 1) can relate to the multiple curricular concepts, these general themes are further specified by additional coding in Table 2. Table 2, which identifies specific inductive categories in the Ontario curriculum, consists of five categories I have named based on my investigation of the Ontario curriculum, each representing a separate collection of codes (that I have also named). I have named these overarching curriculum categories as: Labels (Category 1), Types of media (Category 2), Critical thinking of media (Category 3), Topics of media (Category 4), and Critical thinking of sources of information (Category 5; see Table 2). Within these broad categories I have identified more specific curricular content which I have coded as Information Technology (code 1) and Media literacy (code 2), which fall under the category "Labels"; Mass media (code a) and New media (code b), which fall under the category "Types of media"; Audiences (code <1>), Language (code <2>), Production (code <3>), and Representation (code <4>), which fall under the category "Critical thinking of media"; History (code (1)), Culture (code (2)), Function (code (3)), Politics (code (4)), Attributes (code (5)), Ethic and Safety (code (6)), Health (code (7)), Economy (code (8)), which fall under the category "Topics of media"; Reliability

(code ⅰ) and Credibility (code ⅱ), which fall under the category "Critical thinking of sources of information".

Under this schema, Tables 1 and 2, and correspondingly a comprehensive coding of media education, as it appears across the entire Ontario curriculum can be easily read. For example, there is "B1" in the coding list (see Appendix A). In code "B1," "B" comes from the list of general inductive categories I have named in Table 1, while "1" comes from the list of specific inductive categories I have named in Table 2. "B1" in the coding list stands for research skills relating to the curricular area of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Likewise, "B2" stands for media research skills, since "B" is again the code for research skills and "2" is the code for media education (see Table 2). In other words, the codes are assembled from both general inductive categories and specific inductive categories in order to summarize the details in the texts. The other code in the general inductive categories is E, which stands for "other" (see Table 1). This category involves media use but this kind of media use cannot be classified into the other four thematic categories.

For another example of how general and specific inductive categories are used to identify and specify the Ontario curriculum texts, we can look to information gleaned from the Ontario English curriculum for Grades 11 to 12, part of which states "interpret media texts, including increasingly complex or difficult texts, identifying and explaining the overt and implied messages they convey" (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2007b, p. 55). This content was coded as "A2 i": "A" comes from the list of general inductive categories that I have named in Table 1, and refers to Critical Thinking; "2" comes from the list of specific inductive categories I have named in

Table 2, and refers to Media literacy; “i” also comes from the list of specific inductive categories in Table 2, and refers to Reliability. Accordingly, “A2 i” indicates that the previous curriculum codes refers to critical thinking of reliability of information from media.

The location of codes above is also presented through a coding list (see Appendix A). This list can contribute to analyzing the distribution of different themes in the Ontario curriculum. In order to compare the documents from Ontario and China, these inductive categories are also used to code the Chinese curriculum standards. In the comparison stage, I again compare different themes to try to find out their relations. For example, I compare a thematic category in one subject in different grades, and in the same grade but in different subjects, to find out whether there is a rule in cultivating students media education in different grades or subjects. By this analysis, the research tries to reveal the trend and pattern of developing different levels of media literacy in different grades and subjects (the significant themes and patterns are discussed in Chapter 4).

Data Processing in the Chinese Data

Thematic analysis is also used to analyze the Chinese national curriculum standards. The process of coding the Chinese curriculum standards is similar with the data processing in the Ontario curriculum. A code book was produced to standardize the coding process, but given the comparative nature of my study the thematic categories in the Chinese curriculum standards were derived from the general inductive categories in the Ontario curriculum (Table 1) in that I intend to discover whether Ontario media education themes appear in Chinese curriculum standards. As for my

research aims, these themes can help me discover whether the Ontario model of media education can be applied to the Chinese context. The general thematic categories I named in the Chinese code include several skills that do not relate to media education, but they have the potential to develop as part of media literacy. Therefore, those thematic categories derived from Chinese curriculum standards are similar to the ones in the Ontario curriculum, but they appear differently, in that they use different words and characteristics (see Table 3).

In addition, the specific inductive categories from the Ontario curriculum (Table 2) are also used to specify the codes from general thematic categories in the Chinese curriculum standards. Using the specific inductive categories from the Ontario curriculum helped me compare Chinese curriculum standards and the Ontario curriculum more easily. It revealed some direct similarities and differences between the documents in each context. Further, in that the codes derived from the specific inductive categories from the Ontario curriculum cover various aspects of media literacy, all of the specific information relating to media literacy in the Chinese curriculum standards can also be summarized by these codes. In other words, the coding list of Chinese curriculum standards (Appendix B) consists of assembled codes from general thematic categories (Table 3) and specific inductive categories (Table 2). However, as media education is not systematically integrated into Chinese education, most codes in the Chinese curriculum standards are only minor codes in the general thematic categories derived from the Ontario curriculum (Table 1) but not assembled with the codes from the specific inductive categories (Table 2; see also Appendix B).

Table 3

General Thematic Categories: Chinese Curriculum Standards

Codes	Thematic categories	Key words appearing in Chinese curriculum standards	Characteristics
A	Critical thinking	Analyze, identify	Teaching and learning how to analyze implicit information
B	Research skills	Research, collect, gather, inquire, investigate, obtain	Teaching and learning how to access information
C	Communication	Exchange information, display, present	Teaching and learning how to present ideas and communicate with others
D	Media Knowledge	Media technology, communication technology, Information Technology	Teaching and learning knowledge about media technology, such as features or development of media
E	Others	Appreciate, utilize media, watch films (to learn subject-based knowledge)	Contents relate to utilizing media, but that are not included in the above categories. For example, teaching subject-based knowledge with media but the content does not relate to media. Teachers use media to gather subject-based resources but not relating to ‘teach about media’

In analyzing Chinese educational policies, thematic categories were focused on how students learn critical thinking skills, research skills and communication skills related to media. This involved information literacy, relevant resources, pedagogy, assessment, and curriculum. As some policy documents do not have page numbers and most themes only appear once in a particular document, a coding list of the Chinese policies is not written to display the distributions of these themes.

The analysis of data from China illustrates where media education is located in the Chinese curriculum standards and which part of its educational policies in curriculum reform and educational informationalization can support the development of media education. The relationship between policies and curricula were studied by analyzing their themes together.

Finally, the results from all of the databases are analyzed to reveal whether the strategies of developing media education in the Ontario curriculum can be utilized in developing media education in China. The reasons why the latter strategies can or cannot apply in China are found in the results of my analysis which are presented in the following chapter.

Methodological Assumptions and Limitations

During my thematic analysis, the distinction between thematic groups became clear. Thematic categories did not overlap but some themes had similarities that were amenable to subjective distinctions. More so, the entire process of coding was influenced by subjective discretion. The same text might be coded slightly differently in a repeated reading. The text might be classified into the same thematic category but its codes would

be slightly different. This indicates that bias exists in thematic analysis and some errors can occur.

It is difficult to minimize the biases in this methodology. Nevertheless, a thorough description of thematic categories in the codebook can standardize the process of coding in order to reduce errors and bias (see Appendices A & B). While I coded the texts, I followed the definitions of codes from the codebook. I read each document more than three times to make sure the codes were labeled at the correct places. The other remedy for bias is to provide rich original textual data in this paper when I present my deductive finding from the thematic analysis (chapter 4). Readers can read from original data to review the relations or rules I discovered from the curriculum. What I discovered from the thematic analysis can also be compared with other Ontario-based documents published in professional journals and media education institutions to establish its plausibility.

Finally, this research is document-based research in that my data are official documents from governmental organizations. All documents in this research are accessible by the public on the Internet, a factor which can further point readers toward assessing the plausibility of my conclusions based on those public documents, in that they are able to measure my conclusions for themselves.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings of this study are presented in three sections. The findings in the Ontario curriculum are presented first. These findings reveal that media literacy is only systematically taught in the English language curricula, while it is dispersed in other curricula according to different relevant topics. The following section presents findings from the Chinese national curriculum standards and relevant policies. Those findings illustrate that Chinese compulsory education does not systematically teach students media literacy, even though media education is clearly located in morality courses and even though all the courses are inquiry-based. This section further explores whether Chinese education supports the development of media education and what the state of media education currently is in the Chinese curriculum. In this chapter's third and final section, the feasibility of applying the Ontario media education model to Chinese education will be presented. Those findings illuminate that Chinese education can partly adopt the Ontario model to improve its IT education and systematically promote new media literacy education in its curriculum, but its development will be limited by protectionism because its current educational policies advocate this idea.

The Ontario Curriculum

In my analysis of the Ontario curriculum, data included courses in economics, geography, history, law, politics, English, exploring technology, computer technology, dance, drama, music, visual arts, health and physical education, healthy active living education, and healthy for life. "ICT research skills" (presented as the code "B1"), "ICT communication skills" (presented as the code "C1"), "media critical thinking skills" (presented as the code "A2"), "media research skills" (presented as the code "B2"),

"media communication skills" (presented as the code C2"), and "media knowledge" (presented as the code "D2") are the major themes emerging from the coding process in the these courses (see Appendix A). Amidst themes, "media critical thinking skills," "media research skills," "media communication skills," and "media knowledge" all are the categorizations of media literacy, and they comprise four aspects of skills and knowledge that students will learn in their media education. These four aspects are important to preface at the outset because they bear heavily upon this study's findings.

Key Finding 1

The first key finding is that media education is unevenly distributed across the curriculum. In fact, all of the Ontario courses mentioned above have themes of media literacy in their curricula, but only the English courses, Grades 1 to 8 health courses, and Grades 1 to 8 arts courses clearly write that "media literacy skills" are parts of their consideration for program planning (OME, 2006, p. 13; OME, 2007a, p. 18; OME, 2007b, p. 18; OME, 2009, p. 51; OME, 2010, p. 59). Across the curriculum, only in English language courses is media literacy presented in a regular pattern. Other courses do not show similar trends.

Key finding 1a. The first subcategory in this finding is that the English courses systematically teach students "how to" in learning media literacy, so that the themes of media literacy are presented in a regular pattern in both media study sections and non-media study sections in English courses. Teaching about "how to do" in media literacy means students can learn how to critically think about media and how to communicate or do research through media. In the English courses, media literacy is systematically designed as an independent section called "media literacy" or "media study," so that

teaching and learning media literacy is written into curriculum expectations. In these media study sections, the themes of "media critical thinking skills," "media communication skills," and "media knowledge" are distributed regularly in four curricular areas (see Appendix A). These four curricular areas in the media study section are: "understanding media texts," "understanding media forms, conventions and techniques," "creating media texts," and "reflecting on media literacy skills and strategies" (OME, 2006, pp. 117-119). In the "understanding media texts" and "understanding media forms, conventions and techniques," students learn knowledge of media language and how to think critically about media texts in ways that relate to the purpose, points of view and implied messages of the media, media audiences, and production perspectives (OME, 2006, pp. 117-119). Themes of "media critical thinking skills" and "media knowledge" appear in these two parts regularly, which show that the aim is for students to learn to think critically about various aspects of media.

Similarly, the theme of "media communication skills" steadily appears in the area of "creating media texts" in the media study section of the English curriculum (Appendix A). In this area, the curriculum expects students to learn how to identify the purpose of and audiences for media communication, how to select media forms to communicate, and how to study media communication techniques (OME, 2006, 2007a, 2007b). In this way, students can learn how to communicate through various media forms systematically. Moreover, as English courses are the only courses which teach students how to communicate through media in the Ontario curriculum, they are also the only courses that indicate students should obtain media communication skills in their program achievement charts. In these courses, students are evaluated according to their different level of

communication skills "in oral, graphic, and written forms, including media forms" (OME, 2006, p. 21; OME, 2007a, p. 25;OME, 2007b, p. 25). Therefore, in the language curricula, students learn media language, critical thinking, and communication skills in the regular pattern of learning with other non-media texts. Basically, media education in language curricula is designed to teach media language, tools of critical media thinking and techniques of media communication.

Further, media education is also regularly integrated into non-media study sections in English courses. Non-media study sections include "oral communication," "reading," and "writing" where students in lower grades are expected to peripherally learn more about media knowledge (which I defined as teaching and learning about media that does not take a critical stance) and less media critical thinking skills; and, where students in the higher grades are expected to learn less about media knowledge but more about media critical thinking skills. The teaching of media knowledge in the lower grade courses can be considered the foundation for learning media critical thinking skills in the higher grades. This trend is clear in the distribution of the themes of "media knowledge" and "media critical thinking skills" in non-media study sections (see Appendix A).

In fact, the change from "media knowledge" to "media critical thinking skills" also reflects a broader trend when it comes to subject-based literacy. This trend indicates a preference for learning more language subject-based knowledge in lower grades and more critical language literacy in higher grades. The language curricula expect students to gradually increase their critical thinking skills from Grades 1 to 12 after studying sufficient knowledge about language. Since media literacy is part of this language

subject-based literacy—whereby media education in non-media study sections is often presented to illustrate particular language learning requirements—the trend of moving toward critical media literacy in more advanced grades corresponds to trends in subject-based learning.

In addition, English courses also teach students how to do research through media. In Grades 1 to 8 language curriculum and Grades 9 to 12 English curriculum, the theme of "media research skills" is partly integrated in the curriculum's writing sections which aims to teach students to do research toward preparing writing articles. One of these writing sections states "gather information to support ideas for writing using a variety of strategies and oral, print, and electronic sources (e.g., identify key words… scan texts for specific information, including teacher readalouds…,and media texts)" (OME, 2006, p. 86). In this way, learning how to do research through media is also attached to language subject-based learning in non-media study sections of curricula.

In summary, media education in English curricula is systematically taught in both media study sections and non-media study sections. In the media study sections, the themes of media literacy are distributed evenly in fixed parts, so students can steadily learn media literacy. In the non-media study sections, media education is attached to subject-based learning, so that it changes with the subject-based learning expectations.

Key finding 1b. The second subcategory for this finding is that non-English courses provide supplementary media knowledge and use media topics in prompting students on "what to do" when practicing media literacy, but themes of media literacy are not combined with subject-based content according to any regular pattern. Supplementary media knowledge integrates "teaching about media" into the knowledge of particular

subjects. It includes learning about media knowledge in non-English curricula, such as history, economics, and health courses. I consider the theme of "media knowledge" in these non-English curricula as supplementary media knowledge (also presented as the code "D2"). History, law, politics, arts, health, and geography curricula teach supplementary media knowledge but they do not integrate this kind of knowledge into courses in each grade. The distribution of supplementary media knowledge in courses does not follow a regular pattern (see Appendix A), since these courses are not designed for teaching media literacy systematically as is the case in the English courses. For example, in a history course, students will learn to "explain why the federal government has tried to promote a common Canadian identity, and how it has done so (e.g., through various agencies such as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, National Film Board, … Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission)" (OME, 2005a, p. 46).

This kind of learning requirement is about learning an aspect of Canadian history, but learning this content also involves learning the political function or influences of media. Students will not repeatedly learn this kind of content throughout the history curriculum, so this supplementary media knowledge is not distributed in history courses in a regular pattern. To give another example, students will learn the risks of using communication technology and relevant bullying behavior (OME, 2010). This knowledge about safety in media usage is part of subject-based knowledge in health courses, but learning this also relates to media education. Therefore, supplementary media knowledge in non-media study sections of Ontario curricula overlaps and integrates with subject-based knowledge. As supplementary media knowledge is only a small part of subject-

based learning, its distribution does not show a regular trend as it does in non-English language curricula.

Similarly, topics concerning "what to do," when practicing media literacy, are also linked to subject-based curricular content. Teaching about "what to do" in media literacy refers to how students are taught what to do with media and what to think about media. Students in various subjects are expected to do research through media, communicate through media, and critically think about media with respect to particular topics in the Ontario curriculum. Yet, the curricula do not instruct them about how to do research, communicate or critically think about these topics using media. Teaching and learning media research skills, media communication skills and media critical thinking skills in non-media study courses is always presented in this incomplete form in the Ontario curriculum. This form of practicing media research skills and media communication skills exists in a relatively steady pattern. For example, Canadian and World Studies curricula provide historical, geographic, economic, and political topics for students to practice media communication skills and research skills (OME, 2005a; OME, 2005b). And as the Canadian and World Studies curricula have independent sections for "method of inquiry and communication" in each grade (OME, 2005a; OME, 2005b), the themes of "media research skills" and "media communication" steadily appear in each independent section within these subject-based topics. Again, however, these expectations to *use* media do not systematically engage students in how to do so critically.

The latter reflects the reality that the topics for critical thinking skills are relatively dispersed in the non-English curricula. These curricula provide topics for students to critically think about and suggest using media to do so. In addition, those

curricula also often prompt students to consider the role of media in society without actually using media. For example, many health courses have independent sections called "Healthy Living," which provide topics for students to think critically about, so that students are to consider media to investigate drug use, violence and sexuality present in media (OME, 1999; OME, 2010). Because of this, even though media education is integrated in health courses through the sections of "Healthy Living," the theme of "media critical thinking skills" is not regularly distributed in each grade's health course (Appendix A).

Overall, with respect to all curricula, the English curricula expect students to systematically learn about "how to" critically think about media and "how to" do research and communicate through media, while other curricula provide supplementary media learning and relevant media topics for students, which instruct them on "what to" research, and "what" they should critically think of as well as communicate. Other courses provide a platform for students to practice what they learned about media literacy from English courses. This shows the feature of media education is interdisciplinary. It also indicates the implementation of this kind of media education has to be supported with corresponding teacher education. Learning how to teach media education is also necessary for teachers who teach non-English language curricula, since critical media literacy conceivably bears upon the work of most teachers in current times. Media education should therefore be a concern for all educators, although the aim of this research is to discover the approach of integrating media education into curricula rather than pedagogy.

Key Finding 2

The second key finding is that if courses incline toward being more academic, they will attach less media topics in the "examples" or "teacher prompts," which reveals that media education is used as a bridge to connect schools to society for less academically inclined students. Media education is emphasized more in applied courses than in academic courses. According to the Grade 9 Geography courses, Grade 10 History courses, and Grades 9 and 10 English courses, the themes of media literacy appear more frequently in applied courses than in academic courses (Appendix A). For example, both academic and applied courses in the Grade 9 Geography curriculum have sections on "global connection" and "understanding and managing change" (OME, 2005a), but the applied course in these two sections integrates "media knowledge." In the "global connection" section, the applied course requires students to "describe the effect on Canadian society of the cultural influences of the 'global village' (e.g., in music, dance, fashion, food, media)" (OME, 2005a, p. 39). The "media" appears in the examples for illustration of this learning requirement. On the contrary, the "global connection" in the academic courses has different requirements without "media" as one of the examples. The differences in focus on media education between academic and applied courses also appear in other curricula. Why are there such differences in these two kinds of courses? The causal factors can be discovered through a close reading of how these two courses streams are situated in the Ontario curriculum (not to mention how the students who take them are situated). Take the Grades 9 to 10 English curriculum as the example:

> Academic courses develop students' knowledge and skills through the study of theory and abstract problems. These courses focus on the essential concepts of a

> subject and explore related concepts as well. They incorporate practical applications as appropriate.
>
> Applied courses focus on the essential concepts of a subject, and develop students' knowledge and skills through practical applications and concrete examples. Familiar situations are used to illustrate ideas, and students are given more opportunities to experience hands-on applications of the concepts and theories they study. (OME, 2007a, p. 9)

According to these course designs, the academic courses intend to teach students more abstract thinking skills, while the applied courses attempt teach students knowledge through more concrete examples and familiar situations. As this paper mentioned above, "media" is presented as an example for students to learn about particular subject-based knowledge. Hence, media in the applied courses consist of concrete examples and familiar situations to help less academically inclined students learn abstract knowledge. Accordingly, in the Ontario curriculum, media is used as a bridge to connect abstract knowledge to social issues, and as an arguable tool for engaging less academically inclined students toward interest in those issues.

In addition, media education in academic courses prompts students to explore more abstract questions than in less academic courses. In academic English courses, media texts play less important roles in non-media study sections. For example, all Grade 11 English courses (both academic and non-academic courses) require students to make inferences in reading sections, but media education is presented differently in each type of course. The Grade 11 English course for university preparation indicates that students:

> make and explain inferences of increasing subtlety about texts, including increasingly complex or difficult texts, supporting their explanations with well-chosen stated and implied ideas from the texts (e.g. … explain what the table of contents of a magazine suggests about the magazine's target audience). (OME, 2007b, p. 46)

In this example, students are required to explore how to make inferences using media texts. Compared with requirements in less academic courses, this requirement is more abstract and it provides less specific information to students. Other corresponding content in "making inferences" from Grade 11 English course for college preparation is presented differently. Its curriculum writes that students should:

> make and explain inferences about texts, including increasingly complex texts, supporting their explanations with well-chosen stated and implied ideas from the texts (e.g., draw inferences about a magazine from its cover, or about a newspaper from its front page; make inferences based on the details in an editorial cartoon about the subject being satirized in the cartoon; explain what motivates a character in a short story, on the basis of his or her words and actions). (OME, 2007b, p. 64)

In this expectation, this course for college preparation provides more specific information to students to study the media texts. With respect to the Grade 11 English course for workplace preparation, the expectation for making inferences in the reading section has clear distinctions compared to the other two courses. It states that students should:

> make and explain inferences about both simple and complex texts, supporting their explanations with stated and implied ideas from the texts (e.g., make a

> hypothesis about a company's safety practices based on evidence in a workplace incident report; identify the target market for a product based on evidence in a print advertisement). (OME, 2007b, p. 81)

In this workplace preparation course, studying about media texts is contextualized in a workplace with the aim of solving practical problems rather than exploring an abstract question. These three examples illustrate that media education in academic courses exploring abstract issues and is arguably less directly emphasized than in non-media study sections of English language courses.

Key Finding 3

The third key finding is that the application of ICT is prompting new kinds of media education that stresses critical thinking about online information. The Ontario curriculum states that "ICT [Information and Communication Technology] tools include multimedia resources, databases, the Internet, digital cameras, and an extensive array of specialized software" (OME, 2010, p. 64). Compared with traditional mass media, they are new media, and comprise an emerging form of media education. The roles of ICT in all curricula are almost the same. It is used to extend teachers' instructional strategies and support students' learning and communication. For instance, the Grades 1 to 8 Health and Physical Education curriculum states that, "Computer programs can help students to collect, organize, and sort the data they gather, and to write, edit, and present reports on their findings" (OME, 2010, p. 64). In these texts, the themes of media literacy relating to ICT are identified as "media research skills" and "media communication skills" in my coding scheme and all of them are based on the new media.

The requirements of applying ICT in the Ontario curriculum are that students should learn media knowledge from new media perspectives. For example, students are required to learn relevant media information about the Internet:

> Although the Internet is a powerful learning tool, all students must be made aware of issues of privacy, safety, and responsible use, as well as of the potential for abuse of this technology, particularly when it is used to promote hatred. (OME, 2010, p. 64)

The curriculum therefore emphasizes that students learn the attributes, functions, and influences of new media to some extent. Similar requirements are written across curricula, and several courses require students to learn this type of media knowledge in their specific course expectations (e.g., Grades 4 and 7 Health and Physical Education, Grade 11 Politics, Grade 12 Geotechnologies in action).

Further, the application of ICT also stresses students to learn *critical thinking* of new media information. Learning to evaluate the reliability and credibility of information is a part of learning critical media literacy, which is stressed in Canadian and World Studies curricula and the English curricula. In the methods of inquiry and communication sections in the Canadian and World Studies curricula, students are required to "evaluate the credibility of sources (e.g., authority, impartiality, expertise) and the reliability and usefulness of information (e.g., accuracy and relevance, absence of bias or prejudice, arguments substantiated by evidence)" (OME, 2005b, p. 61). This content is coded as "A i ii" in the coding list (see Appendix A). According to the coding list, the requirement of learning informational credibility and reliability exists in each Canadian and World Studies course. In the Grades 9 to 12 English courses, students are expected to evaluate

the information reliability in their research on writing: “locate and select information to support ideas for writing, using a few different strategies and print, electronic, and other resources, as appropriate (e.g., ... use a checklist to evaluate sources and information for accuracy, reliability, and authority)” (OME, 2007b, p. 62). These examples show that inquiry learning with respect to ICT is accompanied by prompts for critical thinking about informational credibility and reliability.

In conclusion, themes of media literacy are partly integrated into teaching and learning through ICT. New media research skills and communication skills are major components of learning through ICT, which always are accompanied with teaching students critical thinking about the informational reliability and credibility. That said, learning through ICT tends to focus more on teaching through the use of new media rather than teaching about new media (where topics like safety, copyrights, and violence are the extent of learning “about”).

The Chinese Educational Environment

After presenting the findings in my analysis of the Ontario curriculum, this section will present the findings from Chinese national curriculum standards and relevant educational policies. The attributes of the Chinese educational environment are explored in this section in order to discover if the Chinese curriculum has space for developing media education. The data about national curriculum standards in this research are derived from the compulsory education courses of history, moral education, geography, the arts, English, Chinese, music, and health and physical education. The policy documents analyzed in this research are from the MEPRC, which relates to educational informationalization and curriculum reform.

Key Finding 1

The first key finding is that since Information Technology is emphasized as a teaching tool, even if Chinese curricula in compulsory education are inquiry-based, this inquiry-based learning is neither providing enough opportunities for students to apply media skills in conducting inquiries nor encouraging students to critically think about their inquiry results. The Chinese curriculum is inquiry-based, and the theme of "research skills" is distributed across all courses (see Appendix B). Students are required to do research in each of their courses, but using media to do research is not stressed. For instance, Chinese history courses frequently require students to collect information for historical topics, but students are only prompted to use media for one research topic amidst many (MEPRC, 2011h). The opportunities for using various media including Information Technology to do research are limited.

Similarly, students have fewer opportunities to present the results of inquiry through media. They are merely required to understand, appreciate, or talk about their research findings. Several courses suggest students present their ideas through media, which is the case for courses in history, geography, fine art, Chinese, and moral education, but the application of media is not emphasized in any of these courses. For instance, the Chinese course only mentions media communication once in the overall course delivery suggestion, and it only suggests that students use IT to enrich their writing forms (MEPRC, 2011a, p. 24). In the geography course, the overall course delivery suggestion also suggests that students collect information through the Internet and present it through multimedia, but its specific expectation does not mention anything about media presentation (MEPRC, 2011g).

Further, the courses do not strongly require students to critically think about information after doing research. For example, the history curriculum standards suggest students collect specific facts in order to understand the influence of Chinese medicine on their daily lives (MEPRC, 2011h, p. 13). In this example, students are not required to think about the reliability and credibility of the resources. In the Grades 7 to 9 Chinese course, and the history and society course, the curriculum standards require students to learn the differences between original resources and secondary resources (MEPRC, 2011a, p. 18; MEPRC, 2011h, p. 14), but these courses do not stress teaching methods of evaluating informational reliability and credibility.

In contrast, teachers play a more important role in the application of IT. The curriculum standards in each course require teachers to use IT to enrich their course resources and instructional strategies (presented as the code "E" in Appendix B), while the courses suggest students use IT to do research or present their ideas only for a few topics. For example, in the history course, students are frequently prompted to do research but using IT is not emphasized, while teachers are strongly required to utilize IT to collect and present historical resources for students (MEPRC, 2011f). In fact, the role of IT in Chinese education is similar with the role of ICT in the Ontario curriculum, a tool for teaching and learning, but the Chinese curriculum standards emphasize ICT as a teaching tool for teachers rather than a learning tool for students. In summary, the courses suggest students use IT in a few research topics but do not emphasize teaching students informational reliability and credibility.

Key Finding 2

The second key finding is that media knowledge presented in Chinese compulsory

education is limited, which is not related to media language, audience, production, or representation. The national curriculum standards present limited media knowledge for students: History and Society courses teach media development, influences, and attributes of modern media (MEPRC, 2011h, p. 13); Morality and Society courses require students to know types of modern communication technology, and to learn basic manner, morality, and laws relating to the Internet (MEPRC, 2011d, p. 14); Ideology and Morality courses require students to understand the right of expression (MEPRC, 2011e, p. 16); and Arts courses suggest students compare different music genres and films, and learn technology influences on the arts (MEPRC, 2011i, pp. 20-22). The media knowledge in these courses can be clearly identified. The content of this knowledge is combined with subject-based knowledge in these history, morality, and arts courses. The types of media knowledge in these courses are limited to subjects and do not engage critical media literacy.

In this way, media knowledge, which is integrated into these courses, does not concern knowledge relating to decoding the media information, such as the knowledge of media language, media audience, media production, or media representation. The absence of this media knowledge may be related to broader curriculum design, whereby media knowledge is not integrated into language courses (as it is in the Ontario curriculum), such as in English and Chinese courses. As a result, all media knowledge in Chinese compulsory education does not relate to media communication techniques and media language.

Key Finding 3

The third key finding is that "Media literacy" is only located in morality courses, but these courses do not teach how to critically think about media texts, and non-morality courses expect students to accept particular information from media directly rather than

to criticize it. In Chinese compulsory education, there are three courses in moral education. Morality and Life course and Morality and Society course are designed for primary school students (MEPRC, 2011c, 2011d), while Ideology and Morality course is particularly designed for middle school students (MEPRC, 2011e). “Media literacy” is only clearly written into Ideology and Morality course (MEPRC, 2011e, p. 6), which requires students to learn methods of collecting, processing, and accessing information, and of enhancing media literacy as well as be able to adapt well with respect to functioning in the information society. The Ideology and Morality course is the only course that clearly requires students to cultivate their critical media literacy. However, this course merely mentions the phrase “media critical ability” but do not specify what students should learn in this regard. This curriculum states, “rationally utilize the Internet or other communication media, cultivate positive media critical ability, learn to rationally utilize modern media to participate in public life” (MEPRC [translation], 2011e, p. 13). The requirement or definition of positive media critical ability is ambiguous. Similarly, another moral education course requires students to enhance their ability to identify information (MEPRC, 2011d, p. 14). But it does not point out which aspects of information to identify. Does identify refer to informational reliability or credibility? There is no further illustration on this requirement. Media literacy is not symmetrically taught in the morality courses.

Actually, although moral education courses intend to cultivate students’ critical media literacy, other courses do not at all have specific requirements about teaching students how to identify biases or prejudices in media information. Media literacy in moral education courses does not connect to other courses, so students do not have

opportunities to apply what they learn about critical media literacy in other courses. For instance, History courses prompt students to learn the historical background of the establishment of the Chinese Communist Party by viewing relevant movies (MEPRC, 2011f, p. 19). Students are not required to analyze how these movies represent a historical event and what values or perspectives are involved in this media. This will weaken the effect of learning critical media literacy and destroy students' independent and critical thinking skills. In another example, the history curriculum standards prompt students to build faith that justice will conquer evil through watching films such as *Stalingrad* (1993) or 1970's *Patton* (MEPRC, 2011f, p. 33). In this case, students are not required to analyze films from different perspectives because the films are only used as tools for transmitting ideas. The ability to analyze media is not emphasized. Students are expected to receive and accept those media texts without critical thinking about media representation.

When Fine Art courses curriculum standards prompt students to watch videos or other art in mediated forms, students are merely prompted to comment or appreciate media texts rather than critically analyze their purposes, audiences, or representation (MEPRC, 2011b; MEPRC, 2011i). In other words, media is used as an instrument to transfer particular ideas or beliefs in non-morality courses, which is contradictory to the stated aim of media education. Although critical media literacy is taught in morality courses, students cannot learn it systematically in these courses. As well, other non-morality courses that misrepresent media by emphasizing its use as merely a neutral tool. This will be an obstacle in developing Chinese media education.

Key Finding 4

The fourth key finding is that no Chinese educational policies clearly support the development of media education, but some educational policies can indirectly support parts of media education development. A plan for developing media education is not written in any educational policies in China. Instead of media literacy, Chinese education supports students in learning information literacy, which is similar to media literacy but does not emphasize critical thinking about media. The definition of information literacy is not clearly written in policy documents, but it can be revealed through a close reading of relevant policy documents. The 10-year plan for developing IT (2011-2020) states, "The informationalization in basic education is the foundation of enhancing people's information literacy, which is the key point in educational informationalization" (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 7). According to this document, a goal in this plan is cultivating students' learning abilities in the information environment, by which schools will encourage students to use informational methods to study, cultivate students' habits of learning through IT, and enhance students' ability in raising questions, analyzing as well as solving problems in the Internet environment (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 8).

Therefore, its definition can be inferred from students' learning requirements in educational informationalization. Information literacy in this context leans toward technical abilities in using IT to learn and solve problems, but critical thinking about media or media information is not clearly pointed out in this kind of literacy. Although policies do not support the learning of critical media thinking skills, the most important part of media literacy, policies which support the development of technical abilities in

information literacy can indirectly support other aspects of media literacy, such as "media research skills," "communication skills," and "media knowledge."

Finding 4a. The first subcategory in this finding is that educational policies provide financial support, human resources support, and technological support to enhance students' and teachers' information literacy, and it simultaneously provides resources for cultivating students' technical skills toward achieving media research and media communication competencies. As mentioned in previous chapters, educational informationalization is a vital program in Chinese education, which aims at to promote information technology nationally in education areas such as including pedagogy and educational administration. In order to implement educational informationalization, the MEPRC facilitates financial policies for increasing educational investment in educational informationalization, especially in remote areas (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 37). According to the national compendium of long-term educational reform (2010-2020) and development plan and the 10-year plan of developing educational informationalization (2011-2020), the MEPRC plans to construct digitalized campuses and improve informational facilities in schools by providing Internet access and computers (MEPRC, 2010a, 2012a). The development of IT in Chinese education requires schools to increase the number of computers and multimedia equipment in rural schools (MEPRC, 2010a). Further, these two documents also contain a plan for training teachers to have the ability to utilize IT in teaching and educational administration.

In 2015, the goal of the MEPRC is to establish about 30 training institutions for developing teachers' skills in using IT (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 32). The curriculum reform in the future also emphasizes the development of educational informationalization. The

resources for developing IT in schools can provide material foundations for developing media education to some extent. With respect to human resources, the training programs in these plans aim to develop teachers' technical skills with new media. They seek to train teachers to teach with new media and to teach the technical skills of new media. Therefore, policies relating to increasing recourses for teaching information literacy can also support students to learn new media research skills, communication skills, and media knowledge.

Finding 4b. The second subcategory in this finding is that policies support the application of IT in teaching and learning, which provide more opportunities for students to access media and practice their media communication skills and media research skills. Teaching with IT is included in the goal of Chinese curriculum reform. IT is regarded as a powerful tool to reform pedagogy. For example, teachers are expected to present texts and interact with students through IT (MEPRC, 2001). Teachers are required to integrate IT into the curriculum. In fact, the role of IT in Chinese education is becoming increasingly important. In 2010, the MEPRC published a new compendium for educational reform from 2010 to 2020. This policy states that one of the goals of future educational development is facilitating educational informationalization (MEPRC, 2010a), while its requirement of teaching with IT is similar to the curriculum reform in 2001. In 2012, the Ministry of Education distributed a notification for implementing trials on educational informationalization. It expects schools not only to integrate IT into the curriculum but also to adopt student-centered pedagogy in information environments (MEPRC, 2012b). Through these policies, students can have more opportunities to construct their knowledge through IT-based inquiry and communicate their inquiry

results through IT. All these policies intend to improve pedagogies by utilizing IT, so they provide pedagogical supports to develop new media education.

Finding 4c. The fourth subcategory in this finding is that Chinese policies also reveal that the future of Chinese education development advocates student-centered and inquiry-based pedagogy, which can indirectly support students to learn media critical thinking skills and media communication skills. The curriculum reform in 2001 has specific expectations on teachers' teaching approaches. It requires teachers to interact with students actively and cultivate their independence; further, teachers should instruct students to question, research, and inquire through practice; moreover, teachers should cater to individual differences and create educational environments for instructing students to learn actively (MEPRC, 2001). This policy demonstrates that Chinese education is attempting to provide more opportunities for students to construct their knowledge through inquiry. It indicates that the expectation of pedagogic improvement is changing from teacher-centered approaches to student-centered approaches. Accordingly, student-centered media education is accordant with this pedagogical change in the Chinese education. Even if these policies do not provide direct support to develop media education, they show the potential of media education as student-centered learning and teaching can be integrated into Chinese education because future education development in China and the development of media education share similar attributes.

Finding 4d. Similarly, the plan for developing Chinese education requires educators to design curricula with a close connection to society, which illustrates that it is possible that media education can be designed to facilitate this "connection." The fifth 5-year plan for educational development (2010-2015) states that Chinese education will

continue reforming the Chinese, mathematics, and science curricula, and it will design the content of curriculum to support students' lifelong development; further, textbooks will connect more closely to social development, students' experiences, and science and technology development (MEPRC, 2012c). Accordingly, the curriculum reform may provide opportunities to develop media education in courses.

All of the policies mentioned above suggest that educational changes in pedagogy concern student-centered education, inquiry-based teaching, the utilization of IT and the practical connection between curricula and society. These changes can support technical and pedagogical perspectives toward media education, such as media research skills.

Key Finding 5

The study's fifth key finding is that the policies of educational reform provide flexibility to develop local curriculum for a complete media education, but the policy of Internet moral education restricts media education by being protectionist. Some Chinese policies suggest that schools can have the flexibility to develop local curriculum, including their IT curriculum, which means it is possible to develop a complete media education within locally based curriculum contexts. One policy does clearly suggest that schools design IT curriculum according to local conditions (MEPRC, 2010a). In addition, since the curriculum reform in 2001, China implements a three-tiered system of curriculum management, which includes a national curriculum, a provincial curriculum, and a local curriculum (MEPRC, 2001). Specifically, during the process of implementing national and provincial curricula schools are allowed to design their own curriculum according to students' interests, needs, schools' culture, and local, social, as well as economic conditions (MEPRC, 2001). Accordingly, schools are strongly supported in

designing the IT courses, even if existing policies do not yet support full media education courses (in ways that move beyond mere IT courses). Still, the possibility of more local school control shows that developing a complete media education in some schools is possible.

However, another policy restricts schools in developing a complete media education in their local curriculum. I refer to the policy of protectionism. In media education, protectionism is "seeking to defend students against what were seen as the negative cultural, moral, or ideological influences of the media" (Buckingham, 1998, p. 33). In 2010, the MEPRC distributed a notification about reinforcing Internet moral education and resisting harmful information from the Internet. This policy requires schools to teach Internet moral education in morality courses (MEPRC, 2010b). According to this policy, students should use the Internet and cell phones positively and be aware of the harmfulness of pernicious online games and of pornographic and/or violent information; moreover, teachers should instruct students to enhance their abilities in identifying harmful information (MEPRC, 2010b). Through this policy, students can learn critical thinking to some extent. However, students do not learn analytical frameworks to analyze competing information, such as information from authorities.

Authorities have already defined what kinds of information are harmful and incorrect, while teachers are tasked with taking the responsibility to instruct students to identify and resist certain information. In this situation, students are not allowed to choose alternative ideas but must follow authoritative ideas. Although the aim of Internet moral education includes protecting students from harmful information, such as pornographic and violent information, it also involves strong political indoctrination that

again misrepresents critical media education. One of the requirements of this policy is that overseeing educational departments have to inspect campus networks regularly and instruct schools to install relevant software in order to omit harmful information relating to pornography, violence, and reactionary speech (MEPRC, 2010b). As a result, the information environment is "purified" by authorities. Teaching critical thinking of information in the curriculum is thus based on instilling students with moral standards and authoritative ideology. In addition, this policy requires students to learn relevant laws and moral rules in the Internet environment, so students can learn how to protect themselves and not use the Internet to promote hatred (MEPRC, 2010b). As a result, students learn a new media critical literacy limited by protectionism. Under the pressures of this policy, although some policies empower schools to develop their own curriculum, the development of media education in the local curriculum cannot move beyond the protectionism.

Key Finding 6

The sixth key finding is that since pressures from exams are less in Grades 1 to 9 of compulsory education than in Grades 10 to 12 of high school education, promoting media education in compulsory education may be easier than developing it in high schools education. The pressures from exams can be seen in students' assessments of the educational system. Chinese compulsory education includes Grades 1 to 9, primary and middle schools, while Grades 10 to 12, high school, is not included. In compulsory education, students who graduate from primary schools can attend neighbourhood middle schools without taking entrance exams, but primary and middle schools are encouraged to organize examinations for graduation (MEPRC, 2001). The curriculum reform also

states that high school entrance exams should connect more closely to the society and students' life experiences and focus on examining students' abilities in analyzing and solving practical problems (MEPRC, 2001). As for high schools students, the recent plan for educational development states that when colleges and universities recruit students, both exam results and comprehensive ability appraisals will be taken into account; in addition, this plan supports colleges and universities to reform their assessment systems for recruiting students (MEPRC, 2012c). These educational policies reveal students' assessment in China is still based on exam results, while students in primary school are under less exam pressure than students in middle and high schools. In this situation, integrating media education into lower grades of compulsory education may be easier than it is in high school education.

The Feasibility of Contextualization

In the previous sections, the model of integrating media education in the Ontario curriculum is clearly presented, and the current Chinese educational environment for developing media education is also illustrated. This section will present the feasibility of applying the Ontario model to the Chinese context. In other words, the model of Ontario media education in the curriculum will be contextualized in Chinese environments, through document-based data. This process will demonstrate that the Chinese educational environment creates both opportunities and challenges for developing media education through the Ontario model.

Interdisciplinary Curricula

In the Ontario curriculum, language courses systematically teach media literacy with the focus on critical thinking skills and communication skills, while other courses

supplement further media knowledge and provide relevant topics for students to practice what they learn in language courses. In Chinese education, media literacy is located in moral education courses, but it does not teach students media literacy systematically and other courses do not provide opportunities to practice media critical thinking skills. In this situation, is it possible that students can learn media education systematically in morality courses and then practice it in other courses? According to the curriculum standards in Chinese moral education, teaching critical media literacy is a part of course requirements (MEPRC, 2011d, 2011e). Systematically teaching critical media literacy in moral education is possible, but many aspects of media literacy cannot be taught in such a course. The aim of moral education is cultivating students' moral values, mental health, legal consciousness and civic consciousness (MEPRC, 2011e). Thus, teaching students how to communicate or do research through media does not correspond to the purpose of such courses.

Moreover, critical media literacy in moral education is based on protectionism, which indicates that media education practices in other courses are also based on this perspective. In light of the morality curriculum standards and the policies of Internet moral education in China, critical media literacy education aims to instill students with "correct" and valuable concepts and protect them from "harmful" and "incorrect" information which is identified by authorities. For instance, films are suggested as tools for teaching students in history and morality courses. In the Morality and Society course, students are required to learn that China was invaded by other countries and that they should admire national heroes in wars and establish a patriotic goal of working hard for the country (MERPC, 2011d, p. 15). Students are encouraged to accept media

information directly without learning about representation techniques in the media. Thus, cultivating media literacy through interdisciplinary curricula is limited by Chinese protectionism. The interdisciplinary model in Ontario media education cannot be completely applied in the Chinese context.

Language Curricula

In the Ontario curriculum, media education is integrated into language courses as examples, teacher prompts, and independent sections. According to the results of analyzing the Chinese curriculum standards and relevant policies, adopting this Ontario pattern in Chinese language courses is possible. Media education is currently absent in Chinese language courses. But Chinese policies are facilitating reforms in this course and they are attempting to establish a closer relationship between the course and society (MEPRC, 2012c). This indicates there is a space to develop media education in these language courses, especially with respect to cultivating students' media communication skills. In the Chinese language course, the curriculum standards suggest teachers should enrich forms of writing through IT and the Internet (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 24). And the Chinese language course also requires students to identify original resources and secondary resources (MEPRC, 2012a, p. 17). Accordingly, it is possible to extend the content of teaching research and communication skills to teaching students the methods of doing research and communicating through media. However, finding any evidence or inferring any clue from Chinese language curriculum standards and educational policies that supports cultivating students' media critical thinking skills and teaching media language or representation within Chinese language courses falls beyond the scope of this research.

Moreover, as the Chinese course is required to connect to the society and to students' experiences, media texts can serve as connections between the language course and society. For example, media education in Ontario is presented as examples or teacher prompts in the non-media study sections of language curricula. Learning from the language curricula in Ontario, media education in China can be designed as teaching suggestions linking to particular course requirements. Media knowledge about media language art or media communication techniques in China can be taught with relevant non-media requirements, so that the depth and breadth of media education can be changed within non-media course requirements. The pattern of changing media education in non-media study sections of the Ontario language curricula is an example which can be applied in Chinese language courses.

As for an independent media study section in language courses, Chinese policies do not provide strong supports to integrate media education within such a model. Because of the three-tiered curriculum management and the ongoing curriculum reform in the language courses, however, policies do not rule out the possibility that media education could be integrated into the Chinese language curriculum in localized contexts as an independent section. This means that this pattern is more likely to be employed in some schools rather than in nation-wide curriculum reform.

In summary, in Chinese compulsory education, integrating media education with Chinese language curriculum is possible. On a nation-wide scale, teaching media research skills and media communication skills can be possibly combined with Chinese course requirements which are designed as parts of pedagogic suggestions. With respect to media critical thinking skills and media knowledge, the Chinese educational

environment inclines to provide more opportunities to teach these in the local curriculum rather than in the national curriculum.

Supplementary Media Knowledge and Relevant Topics

In the Ontario curriculum, media education is presented as supplementary media knowledge and as relevant topics in non-media literacy courses. It combines teaching about media with subject-based knowledge. This pattern of media education can also be employed in Chinese compulsory courses. The differences in this pattern are that Chinese courses teach less media knowledge and provide fewer topics in practicing media research skills and communication skills, and except for morality courses, relevant topics or knowledge for media critical thinking skills are not integrated with other courses. Based on the existing media themes in Chinese education, increasing media knowledge and relevant topics in Chinese courses is feasible. As mentioned before, educational policies support teachers in catering courses to students' experience and to society, so increasing media knowledge and topics correspond to this requirement.

In addition, the Ontario curriculum not only provides more opportunities for students to learn media literacy and practice relevant skills, but also provides more topics in Health and Physical Education courses specifically. In health and physical education, media knowledge and topics are as follows: food choices, body images, drinking alcohol, violence, physical activities, eating habits, drug use, safety, gender stereotypes, sexuality, tobacco, and decision making (OME, 1999, 2010). For Chinese education, media knowledge and topics about safety and ethics in new media are integrated into morality courses instead, but other media related contents in Ontario

Health and Physical Education courses are not taught in Chinese education. Since these kinds of contents in the Ontario curriculum relate to social phenomenon and students' media experience in their daily lives, there is a potential to add more media knowledge and topics in Chinese morality courses.

Information Technology

The roles of IT in the Ontario curriculum and in Chinese education are similar. However, the Ontario curriculum not only focuses on utilizing IT as teaching and researching tools, but also emphasizes that students should use it as communication tools and be aware of its negative influences in each subject. Further, students are required to evaluate the reliability and credibility of information. In contrast, Chinese education only emphasizes IT as a teaching and research tool across courses, but other aspects of IT are only mentioned in particular courses, such as geography and Chinese language courses. The geography courses suggest students use multimedia only to present their research results and the Chinese language courses suggest students learn more writing forms through IT (MEPRC, 2011a, 2011g).

Through learning from the Ontario curriculum, Chinese education can put more emphasis on the communication functions of IT and on teaching informational reliability and credibility. To some extent, these changes can promote new media literacy from the perspectives of communication skills and critical literacy. Above all, this kind of change can be strongly supported by current educational policies in China, such as policies on educational informationalizationn and educational reform. As mentioned in the analysis of Chinese policies, the application of IT is supported by various resources, pedagogic reform, and curriculum reform. Therefore, teaching new media research skills and

communication skills is supported systematically. Teachers are not only trained to use and teach IT, but schools are encouraged to design curriculum for IT as well. Further, Chinese education continues improving its IT access for schools on a nation-wide scale. This indicates schools in rural areas can also use IT in teaching and learning. Consequently, increasing the learning of new media communication skills across courses can be realized in future curriculum reform.

As for informational reliability and credibility, students can learn how to evaluate those in Chinese language courses, and other courses can integrate this kind of requirement in their research requirements, so that students can have more opportunities to practice what they learn. Improving inquiry-based learning in this way is possible. The curriculum standards in Chinese language courses require students to identify original resources and secondary resources (MERPC, 2011a). This requirement provides space for integrating the requirements of learning information reliability and credibility. Further, my analysis of national curriculum standards reveals that the Chinese curriculum in compulsory education is inquiry-based, and that policies support educators in integrating IT into the curriculum. In this case, promoting the learning of information reliability and credibility in each course is feasible.

As a result, integrating media education into curriculum through educational informationalization can be a feasible approach in China. It accords with current educational developments in China. However, the Chinese educational environment does not support educators in integrating complete media education into the curriculum, so the Ontario model of developing media education can only be partly applied in the Chinese context.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, DISSCUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Educator impulses toward studying comparative education concern "attempting to understand and improve their systems of learning by looking at others" (Hayhoe & Mundy, 2008, p. 1). Based on the same idea, the purpose of this research is to improve media education in China by learning from the Ontario curriculum. Even though this research is not aimed at comparing media education between Ontario and China, the differences between these two contexts are revealed in the analysis. These differences are rooted in various factors, with educational policies being the most crucial ones.

As I was aware of these factors before doing this research, I specified that the goal of this research was to study how media education can be integrated into existing courses in Chinese compulsory education (since the Chinese curriculum reform). As such, I studied relevant Chinese policies after analyzing the Ontario curriculum and Chinese national curriculum standards. I contended that Chinese education cannot simply copy the model of developing media education directly from Ontario without considering Chinese policies, because what educators learn from the Ontario model should be contextualized in Chinese environments. Therefore, the thematic analysis I adopted sought to first discover the approach of how media education is integrated in the Ontario curriculum. I then used the same method to analyze Chinese national curriculum standards and Chinese educational policies to find out whether the Ontario model of media education can be applied to the Chinese context.

Summary of the Study

As mentioned above, this study focuses on learning from differences rather than merely discovering them. To address whether the Ontario model can be applied to

Chinese education, this paper designed three sections to analyze the curriculum data in question. First, this research coded Ontario curricula to uncover where media education existed within it. It then looked toward similarities with courses in Chinese education. After coding the Ontario curricular texts, themes of media literacy emerged from the texts and revealed patterns and attributes of media education in the Ontario curriculum. These themes included media critical thinking skills, media research skills, media communication skills, and media knowledge. A codebook was written to define different themes and the codes that comprised them. During this process, several codes were assembled together in order to summarize the information gathered. In the analytic process, themes were drafted and described according to the coding list. Coded information within themes was compared by subjects and by grades, and different themes were also compared with each other according to these strategies.

After analyzing this database, patterns of media education integration in the Ontario curriculum was revealed. In Ontario media education, English language curricula require students to learn media literacy systematically, while other curricula expect students to learn supplementary media knowledge and provide topics for them to practice what they learn from media studies within English language curricula. In English language curricula, students mainly learn how to think critically about media and how to communicate through media systematically in independent sections. In non-media sections of English language curricula, media education is also present in the form of examples and teacher prompts. Related to these points, the curricula favour more media knowledge and less media critical thinking skills in the lower grades. In other curricula (i.e., non-English language curricula), both supplementary media knowledge and media

topics are combined with subject-based content. Students can learn media knowledge from those subject-based perspectives, such as history, politics, arts, and economics. As for media topics, the curriculum instructs students on what topic they can do research on and communicate through media, and what media topics they should think critically about. In addition, a part of the "Information and Communication Technology application" in the Ontario curriculum is new media literacy education, which suggests to students to use new media to do research and communicate. This requirement also asks students to be aware of issues in new media, and to think of informational reliability and credibility when they utilize new media in learning. In other words, the Ontario media education illustrates that themes of media literacy are integrated across the curriculum. This shows that media education in the Ontario curriculum is interdisciplinary.

The tenets of this interdisciplinarity—again, coded and themed—were analyzed in the comparison to the Chinese educational environment for media education. This database included the national curriculum standards in Chinese compulsory education and relevant policies, which were also studied through thematic analysis. Most of the curricular themes emerging from these texts were not directly related to media education, but they revealed the potential for developing media education. Other codes relating directly to media revealed how media education is presented in the Chinese curriculum standards, and other non-media-literacy themes in the policy documents revealed to what extent Chinese educational environments can support educators to develop media education.

My study reveals that the Chinese curriculum in compulsory education is inquiry-based but it does not emphasize that students should use media to do research and present

their ideas. Critical media literacy is only written in the morality curriculum, and the requirement of learning it is not connected to other curricula. Basically, critical media literacy is absent in the rest of the curriculum. Furthermore, the application of IT in Chinese education does not require students to learn how to evaluate informational reliability and credibility. With respect to the educational policies, there is no policy that clearly supports "media education," but lots of policies support inquiry-based learning and the use of IT. As well, according to the policy of Internet moral education, critical media literacy in moral education is based on protectionism. Overall, the Chinese educational environment does not clearly support the integration of the complete media education into the curriculum, but it supports the development of "new" media education within the curriculum through the development of technical skills, albeit within a form of protectionist perspectives.

Finally, the Ontario model of integrating media education into the curriculum was analyzed in Chinese contexts. This part of the study illustrated that the Ontario model cannot be completely employed within Chinese educational contexts because of current Chinese policies. The result of this analysis illustrates that the Ontario model of media education can only be partly applied in Chinese education.

According to the Ontario model and the Chinese educational environment, the possibility of partly applying the interdisciplinary model in Chinese media education is high. It is feasible that the Chinese curriculum can systematically teach students critical media literacy in morality courses and provide media topics for them to practice in other courses. Moreover, it is possible that teaching media research skills and communication skills in the Chinese language course can be combined with subject-based content.

Although policies do not support educators to design an independent section to teach media literacy within the national curriculum standards, the policies provide opportunities to develop media education within the differentiation of local curricula. Furthermore, increasing opportunities for students to practice what they learn from media education is possible because the current curriculum standards of Chinese compulsory education and policies support the increase of the connection between curricula and society, as does media education. In addition, the application of IT in China can learn from the Ontario model. As Chinese policies strongly support the development of educational informationalization, it is possible to add and emphasize the requirement of teaching informational reliability and credibility in the Chinese curriculum. That said, if the Ontario model of media education is applied to Chinese education, it may come to emphasize critical media literacy within morality education, since protectionism remains a strong impulse in Chinese education and only stresses the *application* of IT rather than critical orientations to both new media and traditional mass media.

Discussion

One significant difference between Ontario media education and Chinese media education is in the location of media education. In Ontario, “media literacy” is only written into English language curricula, and into the Grades 1 to 8 health and physical education curriculum, while in China, “media critical ability” is only included in relation to ideology and morality curriculum standards. Critical media literacy therefore has different functions in China and Ontario.

Based on the findings of this research, media education in China is inclined to promote political and moral indoctrination. Here critical media literacy teaches students

to believe what the authorities believe, so students will learn how to identify ideologically "harmful" information through analysis. As for critical media literacy in Ontario education, it is designed to teach students analytical frameworks that students can use to critically analyze different values and perspectives from media texts and how media influence their decisions. In this way students will learn to choose what they believe after analyzing different ideas and influences from the media. However, this does not mean that critical media literacy in Ontario does not have the function of political and moral indoctrination. For example, Health and Physical Education courses require students to analyze how media present violence and how it may influence them (OME, 2010). After analyzing the media, this course could attempt to teach students moral standards. When students confront violence, they may conceivably implement proper attitudes and behaviours corresponding to those moral standards.

When the curriculum teaches media knowledge relating to politics, students are taught to recognize how the Canadian government uses media to establish national identity and understand how media can be used to express political ideas (OME, 2005a). This example, which shows students how to employ media toward political ends, illustrates that critical media education in Ontario also involves political and moral indoctrination, but it does so under the guise of teaching students media analysis skills (which they may actually learn in the process). In other words, after learning how to analyze media, students have the freedom to choose what they advocate under political and moral instruction or direction from authorities. This shows that politics may influence Ontario media education, but it does so in a more hidden way. Different from the Ontario curriculum, Chinese education does not offer students enough opportunities

to learn how to analyze media texts relating to political and moral issues because details of teaching critical media literacy are not written into those curriculum standards. Again, based on the documents in this research, media education in China does not emphasize teaching students how to analyze media texts critically and focuses more on the educational results of learning right and wrong from media.

In China, media education is protectionist, and is influenced by politics. A major political factor here is media censorship in China. The Chinese government has long controlled mass media in order to provide the "best" media environment to its citizens (Xu, 2009). The definition of "best media environment" is defined by authorities, defined by politics and moral values within Chinese contexts. Similarly, in the Information Era, the Chinese government controls new media through Internet censorship in order to provide a "better" media environment to people. However, the government has lost its control in restricting access to media information to some extent. Individuals in China now have many ways to get information from current media environments (Xu, 2009), and content cannot be highly restricted. Children and teenagers have more opportunities to encounter harmful information as identified by authorities. Under this political influence, the aim of developing media education in China is to protect teenagers from media environments that governments cannot completely "purify." Accordingly, Chinese critical media education puts more emphasis on new media rather than on traditional media. As Lee (2010) states, one goal of media education in China is training students to be ethical media professionals, which can build up a healthy media environment within society.

Given the political influence from media censorship, does the Chinese government support educators to develop critical media education? Lee (2010) claims

that Chinese authorities from government and education increasingly support media education. But according to the findings in this research, no Chinese educational policies clearly support critical media education. "Media education" or "media literacy" does not appear in any policies. On the contrary, "information literacy" is written into several policies aimed at developing IT in education. As mentioned earlier, information literacy does not necessarily emphasize critical thinking of information. Based on the documents I studied, the government does not support educators to develop critical media literacy in ways that move beyond protectionism. In fact, in light of Chinese policies about Internet moral education, critical thinking about information really amounts to teaching self-censorship with the purpose of protecting people from perceived harmful information. This self-censorship presents social biases and stereotypes that work to suppress reactionary ideas. When this self-censorship acts on students, they may not only avoid accepting more obviously harmful information, such as pornography and violence, but reject to review and analyze alternative ideologies or reactionary ideas. Students' independent thinking skills are weakened in this way. Meanwhile, Internet censorship in schools likewise aims to "protect" students and provide a "healthy" media environment. This mode of teaching critical media literacy can be linked to soft media censorship. Therefore, the Chinese government clearly supports the development of protectionist media education in its focus on new media.

Recommendations

Because this study aimed to improve Chinese media education by learning from the Ontario curriculum, the culminating results of this research are the major recommendations I make for Chinese educators. Those results involve exploring the

feasibility of whether the Ontario model of integrating media education into its curriculum can be applied in the Chinese context. In what follows I provide some detailed recommendations about how Chinese media education can be improved by learning from the Ontario curriculum. In particular, I suggest that Chinese media education can be improved from three perspectives: contextualization, digital media education, and local curriculum.

Contextualization

Learning from other countries is a good way to improve Chinese media education, but "how to learn" should be contextualized. Cultural, economic, political, and social factors are different from country to country. Even if this research merely studied educational policies and curriculum standards in Chinese compulsory education, the difficulties of applying the Ontario media education model are clear. Since the function of media education in China differs from the one in Ontario, directly copying the Ontario model in China is unrealistic. However, learning from the Ontario curriculum can still benefit the development of Chinese media education, as long as educators contextualize this model. According to the current policies and curriculum standards in China, the pattern of integrating media education in the Ontario curriculum can be partly employed in the Chinese context, which is illustrated in detail in the feasibility section in chapter 4 and the summary of the study in this chapter.

When Chinese educators attempt to develop media education, they can start from gradually changing the curriculum standards according to the current educational trend of better connecting schooling to society. This trend is, again, already in line with the main values and attributes of critical media education in Ontario. Developing media education

in China is a long-term process. Chinese scholars have tried to develop media education for more than 10 years (Liao, 2008). However, there is still no policy to develop media education in the Chinese curriculum. This indicates that making a series of new policies to support media education in China may be more difficult than improving curricula based on current policies, according to many of the ways I have already mentioned: greater interdisciplinary integration of media across the curricula, gradually less protectionism as Chinese society continues to change according to its new media environment, and a greater emphasis on connecting students' work in schools to the reality of contemporary society rather than to just abstract knowledge. Contextualizing changes within Chinese contexts can be a better way to develop Chinese media education.

Digital Media Literacy

Since the trend of Chinese educational development is educational informationalization, the development of media education can put more emphasis on digital media literacy education. In other words, IT should not only be a tool for teaching and learning. As Hobbs (2011) says, digital technology should move from "a tool-focused orientation," and "school librarians, teachers, and educational technology leaders can help shift the focus to emphasize how digital tools are used to promote critical thinking, creativity, and communication and collaboration skills" (p. 15).

In this case, how does Chinese education change the application of IT to digital media literacy education? Learning from the Ontario curriculum, I suggest that the Chinese curriculum can provide more opportunities for students to practice communication and research skills through media and by teaching students important methods of evaluating information reliability and credibility absent protectionist impulses.

In fact, the evaluation of information reliability and credibility is an important part of cultivating critical thinking skills in digital media environments. The uncertainty of source information on the Internet makes information unreliable (Flanagin & Metzger, 2008). It is necessary to emphasize teaching information reliability and credibility so that students can obtain the ability to use information correctly and effectively in their inquiry-based learning. Further, students can learn the ability to distinguish and identify truly harmful online information as the existing policy on Internet moral education in China requires. This suggestion is accordant with current educational developments in China, and it also helps information literacy education move toward a more desirable digital media literacy education.

In summary, according to the Chinese context, I suggest developing digital media education in two stages. First, educators can shift the application of IT from tool-focused orientations to critical-thinking orientations with the focus on evaluating informational reliability and credibility. This can supplement the content of teaching information literacy based on the foundation of developing educational informationalization. Second, educators may then gradually reach the goal of developing media education beyond protectionism according to changes in the Chinese social and political context. In this way, complete media education may be developed in China in the future.

Local Curriculum

The results of this research suggest that educators can also start to improve media education through integrating media education into the local curriculum since current educational policies provide increasing opportunities for schools to develop their own curriculum. As the feasibility study in this research revealed, Chinese policies do not

strongly support some applications of the Ontario media education model, but Chinese policies are flexible enough that schools are now allowed to develop their own curriculum. This indicates that Chinese educators can have opportunities to apply the Ontario model more effectively in local media education contexts.

The practices of media education in local curricula can offer trials for the further nation-wide development of media education. To promote media education, Chinese educators can also learn from the development of local educational informationalization movements as well as processes of recent localized curriculum reform. Generally, the MEPRC will not implement new Chinese educational policies across the whole country directly. New policies will be put into trial first in some schools. For example, one policy writes that, "in order to sufficiently implement the long-term national compendium of educational reform and development plan and meet the requirement of accelerating educational informationalization, the Ministry of Education decided to launch trials of implementing educational informationalization" (MEPRC, 2012b, para. 1). The purpose of the trial is to explore the methods of applying IT in Chinese education through learning from the experience (MEPRC, 2012b). Accordingly, Chinese educators can commit themselves to more resolutely develop through this model.

Conclusion

Educational policies exert great influence on media education, which not only influences how it is currently presented in the curriculum, but also influence its development in the future. Media education is presented differently in the Ontario curriculum and the Chinese curriculum. Chinese education emphasizes cultivating media literacy in morality courses, while Ontarian education mainly teaches it in language

courses, as well as health and physical education courses. The analytical results of the policies and curriculum standards I investigated reveal that Chinese media education is limited by protectionism, while the pattern of integrating media education into the Ontario curriculum largely operates outside of similar protectionisms. In this case, the Ontario model provides an example for Chinese educators on how to change media education, especially the convergence of new media education, from protectionists and tool-focused orientations toward critical-thinking orientations.

Critical media literacy education can liberate people from the oppression of authority and help them to construct their own meanings and knowledge. In traditional teacher-centered education, students are used to accepting information from teachers without enough opportunities to think independently or critically. Protectionism in media education corresponds to broader Chinese educational traditions. Media education influenced by these traditions suggests that people access "harmful" information before education "protects" them. Under protectionism, the authority defines what to believe and people have less freedom to choose. Breaking through protectionism to develop critical media literacy education can create a more just relationship between people and authority. Through this education, people can be encouraged to think more independently, choose alternative ideas and express themselves in support of democratic activities. Changes in media education can have a great impact on Chinese society.

However, if Chinese policies only support protectionist media education, the development of Chinese media according to the Ontario model will encounter difficulties and challenges. Making new policies to promote media education can be an effective and efficient approach, but it is doubtful whether Chinese educational policies about new

media can break free from their protectionist barriers and tool-focused orientations due to the complexity of the Chinese context. The challenges to media education in China may not only come from educational environments but also from politics, the economy, and culture as well. Therefore, Chinese educators can apply parts of the Ontario media education model by learning from its tenets of curricular integration, making media education relevant to current social contexts rather than simply copying it. In this way educators can gradually explore a Chinese model of developing a media education that moves beyond protectionism.

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Appendix A

Coding List for the Ontario Curriculum

Coding legend:

A = Critical thinking skills

B = Research skills

C = Communication skills

D = Media knowledge

E = Other

1 = Information Technology

2 = Media literacy

a = Mass media

b = New media

<1> = Audiences

<2> = Language

<3> = Production

<4> = Representation

(1) = History

(2) = Culture

(3) = Function

(4) = Politics

(5) = Attributes

(6) = Ethic and Safety

(7) = Health

(8) = Economy

(9) = Art

i = Reliability

ii = Credibility

Coding List for the Ontario Curriculum

Courses	Pages	Codes	Titles
The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10: Canadian and World Studies (OME, 2005a)			
	3	B1, C1	Introduction
	6	B2a	
	16	C2	Assessment and Evaluation of Student Achievement
	18	A<4>	
	24	A<4>	Antidiscrimination Education in Canadian and World Studies
	25	B1	The Rode of Technology in Canadian and World Studies
Geography			
CGC1D (Grade 9, Academic)			
	34	B2, A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CGC1P (Grade 9, Applied)			
	38	C2	Huam Environment Interaction
	39	D2(2)	Global Connection
	40	A1(1)	Understanding and Managing Change
	41	B2,A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
History			
CHC2D (Grade 10, Academic)			
	46	D2(4), D2(2)	Communities: Local, National, and Global
	48	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	52	B2, A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHC2P (Grade 10, Applied)			
	55	D2(2)	Communities: Local, National, and Global
	57	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	60	D2(4)	Social, Economic, and Political Structure
	61	B2, A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHV2O (Grade 10, Open)			
	65	D2(4)	Informed Citizenship
	67	D2(4)	Purposeful Citizenship
	69	B2, C2, C2(4)	Active Citizenship
The Ontario Curriculum Grades 11 and 12: Canadian and World Studies (OME, 2005b)			
	3	B1, C1	Introduction
	6	B2a	

17	C2	Assessment and Evaluation of Student Achievement
18	A<4>	
24	A<4>	Antidiscrimination Education in Canadian and World Studies
25	B1	The Rode of Technology in Canadian and World Studies

Economics

CIE3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)

31	A<1><3> ii	Economic Stakeholders
35, 36	C2b, A i ii , C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CIC3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)

42, 43	C2b, A i ii , C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CIA4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

51, 52	C2b, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

Geography

CGD3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)

61, 62	C2, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGF3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)

69	C2, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGT3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)

77	C2, C ii , B3	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGG3O (Grade 11, Open)

84	C2, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGW4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

94	C2, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGU4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

101	C2, A i ii , C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGR4M (Grade 12, University/College Preparation)

108	C2, A i ii , A2<4>, C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGO4M (Grade 12, University/College Preparation)

115, 116	C2, C ii , B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CGU4C (Grade 12, College Preparation)			
	122	D2(3) (8)	Understanding and Managing Change
	123	C2, A i ii, C ii, B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CGR4E (Grade 12, Workplace Preparation)			
	130	C2, A i ii, C ii, B3	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
History	132	B1, C1	
CHA3U (Grade 11, University Preparation)			
	139	A2a(2)	Citizenship and Heritage
	142	C2, A i ii, C ii, B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHW3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)			
	149	C2, A i ii, C ii, B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHH3C (Grade 11, College Preparation)			
	154	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	156	D2(1)(9)	Citizenship and Heritage
	160	A i ii, C ii, B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHH3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)			
	165	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	167	D2(1)(9)	Citizenship and Heritage
	169	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHT3O (Grade 11, Open)			
	174	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	176	A2(1)(4)	Citizenship and Heritage
	177	D2a(2)(4)(9)	
	180	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHI4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)			
	185	A2(2)	Change and Continuity
	186	A2(3)	
	187	A2(2)(4)	Citizenship and Heritage
	188	A2(2)(4)	
	191	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHY4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)			
	199	D2(1)(9)	Citizenship and Heritage
	202	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication
CHY4C (Grade 12, College Preparation)			
	207	D2(1)	Change and Continuity
	210	D2(1)(9)	Citizenship and Heritage
	213	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CHM4E (Grade 12, Workplace Preparation)

216	D2(1)	Communities: Local, National, and Global
218	D2	Citizenship and Heritage
221	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

Law

CLU3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)

226	D2(4)	Right and Freedoms
230	D2(4)	Regulation and Dispute
231	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CLU3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)

238	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CLN4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

246	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

Politics

CPC3O (Grade 11, Open)

250	D2(4)(3)	Citizenship, Democracy, and Participation
252	D2(3)(4)	Power, Influence, and the Resolution of Difference
253	D2(4)	Decision-Making System and Processes
254	A2(4)	Values, Beliefs, and Ideologies
255	A i ii, C ii, B2	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

CPW4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

258	A2(4)	Participation in the International Community
259	A2(4)(8), D2(4)(8)	Power, Influence, and the Resolution of Difference
262	A i ii, C ii	Methods of Inquiry and Communication

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 1 to 8: Language (OME,2006)

4	C2	Introduction
13	A2, C2	The Program in Language Education
14	A2, C2, D2	
17	C2	The Achievement Chart for language
21	C2	
29	A2(2)<4>	Antidiscrimination Education
29	B2	Numeracy and Inquiry/Research Skills
30	A2 i ii, B2, C2	The role of the School Library
30	B1, C1	The role of Technology
33	B2	Overviews of Grades 1 to 3

	33,34	C2	
Grade 1	39	E	Reading
	45, 46	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2 A2<4> 1.3 A2<5> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
	46	2.1 D2 <2> 2.2 D2 (3)<2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	47	4.1 D2 <2>A2 <5> 4.2 D2 <2>	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 2	54	C2	Reading
	56	1.1 C2a 1.3 B2	writing
	59, 60	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2 A2<4> 1.3 A2<5><1> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <2> 2.2 D2 (3)<2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 D2 <2>A2 <5> 4.2 D2 <2>	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 3	67	1.1 E 1.2 A2a <1>	Reading
	68	D2a(5)	

	73	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2 A2a<4> 1.3 D2(6)(4) 1.4 D2<1>, A2<5> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
	74	2.1 D2 <2> 2.2 D2 (3)<2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	74, 75	3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	75	4.1 C2, A2 <4> 4.2 D2 <2>	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 4	82	2.7 C2	Oral Communication
	83	1.1 E 1.2 D2 <1>	Reading
	84	1.8 A2a 2.2 D2a (3)	
	89	1.1 D2<1> 1.2 A2<4><2> 1.3 A2<4> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <3> 2.2 D2 (3)<2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 C2 <2>A2 4.2 E	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 5	97	1.1 E 1.2 D2 <1>	Reading
	100	1.3 B2 2.1 C2, A2	writing

	103	1.1 D2<1> 1.2 A2<4><2> 1.3 A2<4> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <3><2> 2.2 D2 (3)	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 C2 <2> 4.2 E	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 6	108	1.1 A2a 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
	111	1.1 E 1.3 D2 <2> 1.4 A2 2.1 A2<2> 3.3 E	
	114	1.1 A2 <1> 1.3 B2 2.1 C2a 4.2 E	Writing
	117	1.1 D2<1><2> 1.2 A2 <1> <4> 1.3 A2<1> <4> 1.4 D2<1>, A2<5> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <2> (3) 2.2 A2 <1><2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 D2, C2 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 7	124	1.1 E 2.7 C2a	Oral Communication

	127	1.1 E 1.2 D2 <1> 1.4 A2	Reading
	130	1.1 A2 <1> 1.3 B2 2.1 C2a	Writing
	133	1.1 D2<1> 1.2 A2 <2> 1.3 A2<2> <4> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>(2) (4) (9)	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <2> (3) 2.2 A2 <1><2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 D2, C2 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
Grade 8	142	2.2 A2 <2>(3) 4.2 D2 (3)	Reading
	144	1.3 B2	Writing
	147	1.1 D2<1> <2> 1.2 A2 <2> 1.3 A2(3) <4><2> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2<4> 1.6 A2<3>(2) (4) (9)	Media Literacy: 1.Understand media texts
		2.1 D2 <2> (3) 2.2 A2 <1><2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 (3) 3.3 C2 <1> (3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1 D2 <1> 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Media Literacy Skills and Strategies
The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10: English (OME, 2007a)			
	4	A2	Principles Underlying the English Curriculum

	5	B2	Roles and Responsibilities in English Programs
	9	D2	Overvies of the Program
	14	A2 C2	Strands in the English Program
	18	D2(3), A2, A2 i ii C2	
	23	C2	The Achievement Chart for English
	33	A i	Antidiscrimination Education
	34	B2, A2	Literacy, Mathematical literacy, and Inquiry/Research Skills
	35	B1, C1, D2b(5)(6)	The Role of the School Library
	36	B1, C1	Career Education
	37	D2(4)	
ENG1D (Grade 9, Academic)			
	41	A2	
	43	A i , B2b	Oral Communication
	44	C2, D2 (3)	
	45	1.1 A2	Reading and Literature Studies
	46	1.8 A i ii 2.1 D2 (5) 2.2 D2 (5) 2.3 D2 (5) (3)	
	48	A2<1>, D2a, B2 1.4 C2a	Writing
	49	2.2 C2b 2.5 A i	
	51	3.6 C2a	
	52	A2, D2(5), C2	Media Studies:
	53	1.1 D2 <1> 1.2 A2 <2> i 1.3 A2 <1><2> 1.4 D2 <1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D3 <3>	1. Understand Media Text
		2.1 D3 (5) 2.2 D2 <1> (3) (5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2 <1>(5) 3.3 C2b <1> 3.4 C2 <1> (5)	3. Creating Media Texts
	54	D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG1P (Grade 9, Applied)

56	1.6 D2 (5)<4> 1.7 A2 <1> (5) 1.8 A i	Oral Communication
58	2.7 C2a	
60	1.5 A2a 1.7 A2b 1.8 A i ii, B2, C ii	Reading and Literature Studies
62	2.2 D2a (5) 1.1 A2a (5) 1.2 B2b 1.3 A i ii	Writing
63	2.2 C2a 2.5 A i	
65	3.6 C2	
66	A2, D2(3)(5), C2 <1> 1.1 D2a <1> 1.2 A2 1.3 A2 <1><2> 1.4 D2 <1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D3 <3>(3)	Media Studies: 1. Understand Media Text
67	2.1 D2(5) 2.2 D2(3)(5) 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 C2<1>(3)(5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques 3. Creating Media Texts
68	4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG2D (Grade 10, Academic)

70	1.4 A2a 1.5 D2<2> 1.7 A2a(3) 1.8 A i 1.9 A2	Oral Communication
73	1.4 A2a<1> 1.5 D2<1> 1.8 A i 2.2 D2(5)<2> 2.3 D2<2>	Reading and Literature Studies

	76	1.1 D2a <1> 1.3 B2 A i ii, C ii 1.4 A2a 2.1 C2<1> 2.5 A2 i 3.6 C2a	Writing
	80	A2, C2, D2(3)(5) 1.1 D2a<1> 1.2 A2 1.3 A2a<1> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2<3>(3)	Media Studies: 1. Understand Media Text
	82	2.1 D2a(3)(5) 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2 <1> 3.2 C2<1>(5) 3.3 C2(3) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies
ENG2P (Grade 10 Applied)			
	84	1.5 D2<2> 1.6 D2<4> A2 1.7 A2<1><2> 1.8 A i	Oral Communication
	88	1.1 B2b 1.3 A2a 1.4 A2<1> 1.5 A2a 1.6 D2a<2> 1.7 A2a 1.8 A2a i 2.2 D2b<2>(5) 3.3 D2(3)<4>	Reading and Literature Studies
	90	1.3 B2, A i, C ii 2.2 D2a(5) 2.5 A i	Writing

	95	1.1 D2a<1> 1.2 A2a 1.3 A2a<1><2>(5) 1.4 D2<1>(2) 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2<3>(3)	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media Texts
		2.1 D2a<2>(5) 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
		3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2<1>(5) 3.3 C2 (5) 3.4 C2<1>(5)	3. Creating Media Texts
		4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies
ELS2O (Grade 10, Open)			
	102	1.1 A2 i (2) 1.2 B2 1.4 A2 1.5, 1.6 A2 i 1.7 A2(5) 1.8 A2<2> 1.9 A2 i 2.1 A2<2>(5) 2.2, 2.3 D2<2>	Reading
	103	1.1 D2(5)(3)<1> 1.2 A2 1.3 B2 2.1 C2<1> 2.2 C2b 2.3, 2.5 C2	Writing
The Ontario Curriculum Grades 11 and 12: English (OME, 2007b)			
	4	A2	Principles Underlying the English Curriculum
	5	B2, D2(2)	Roles and Responsibilities in English Programs
	18	A2, C2	Strands in the English Program
	25	C2	The Achievement Chart for English
	33	A i , A2<4>	Antidiscrimination Education
	34	B2	Literacy, Mathematical literacy, and Inquiry/Research Skills
	35	B1, C1	
ENG3U (Grade 11, University Preparation)			

42	1.9 A2a 2.1 C2b 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
46	1.4 A2<1> 1.5 A2a i 1.7 A2 i 1.8 A i	Reading and Literature Studies
50	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2, 1.3 B2, C ii 2.1 C2a 3.1 C2<2>	Writing
55	1.1 A2<1> 1.2 A2 i 1.3 A2 A2<1><2> 1.4 A2<1> i 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2 <3>(3)	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media Texts
56	2.1 D2(5)<2> 2.2 D2(5)<1> 3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2(5)<1> 3.3 C2b(5) 3.4 C2b	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques 3. Creating Media Texts
57	4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG3C (Grade 11, College Preparation)

60	1.4 C2a 1.5 A2 1.7 A2a 1.8 A i 1.9 A2 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
64	1.1 E 1.4 A2a 1.7 A2 1.8 A i 2.1 A2(5) 2.2 A2(5)<2>	Reading and Literature Studies

67	1.1 A2<1> 1.3 B2, C ii 1.4 C2 2.1 C2a 2.5 A i 3.6 C2	Writing
71	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2 A2 i 1.3 A2<1> 1.4 A2<1> i 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2 (3)<3>	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media Texts
	2.1 D2(5)<2> 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	3.1 C2a<1> 3.2 C2(5) 3.3 C2<1><2>(5) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)

76	1.1 A2a<1> 1.5 A2a<2> 1.6 A2<1> i 1.7 A2a 1.8 A i <1> 1.9 A2 2.3 C2a 3.2 A2<2>	Oral Communication
80	1.1 A2 1.4, 1.6 A2a 1.8 A2 i 2.1 A2(5)<2> 2.3 A2a(5)<2> 3.3 A2a	Reading and Literature Studies
84	1.1 A2a<1> 1.3 B2 C i 2.1 C2a<1> 2.6 A i 3.6 C2	Writing

88	1.1 A2a<1> 1.2 A2 i 1.3 A2<1>(5) 1.4 A2<1> i 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2 (3)<3>	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media Texts
	2.1 D2(5)<2> 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	3.1 C2a<1> 3.2 C2a(5)<1> 3.3 C2 (5) 3.4 C2<1>	3. Creating Media Texts
	4.1, 4.2 D2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG4U (Grade 12, University Preparation)

91	1.5 A2a 1.8 A i 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
96	1.1 A2a(5) 1.4 A2b 1.6 A2<2>	Reading and Literature Studies
100	1.2 B2b 1.3 B2b, C2 ii 1.4 C2 2.5 A i	Writing
105	1.1 A2<1> 1.2 A2 i <2> 1.3 A2 <1> 1.4 A2<1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2 <3>	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media texts
	2.1, 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understand Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2(5)<2> 3.3 C2(5)<2> 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	4.1 C2a 4.2 A i	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG4C (Grade 12, College Preparation)

110	1.7 A2<2> 1.8 A i 1.9 A2<2> 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
114	1.2 A i 1.4, 1.5 A2a 1.7 A2<2> 1.8 A i 2.3 A2<2>	Reading and Literature Studies
118	1.1 A2<1> 1.2, 1.3 B2 2.1 C2 2.5 A i	Writing
123	1.1 A2<1> 1.2 A2 i 1.3 A2<1><2> 1.4 A2<1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 D2 <3>	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media Texts
	2.1, 2.2 D2(5)	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	3.1 C2<1> 3.2 C2(5)<1> 3.3 C2(5) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	4.1 D2<3> 4.2 A2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

ENG4E (Grade 12, Workplace Preparation)

128	1.1 A2 <2> 1.2 A2a 1.7 A2<1><2> 1.8 A i 2.7 C2	Oral Communication
132	1.3 A2 1.4 A2<1><2> 1.5 A2a 1.6 A2 1.7 A2a 1.8 A2a i 2.2, 2.3 A2<1><2>	Reading and Literature Studies

135	1.2 A2 1.3 B2 2.5 A i	Writing
140	1.1 A2<1> 1.2 A2 i <1><2> 1.3 A2 <1><2> 1.4 D2<1> 1.5 A2 i 1.6 A2 <3>	Media Studies: 1. Understanding Media texts
	2.1, 2.2 D2<1><2>	2. Understanding Media Forms, Conventions, and Techniques
	3.1 C2<1>(5) 3.2 C2 <1>(5) 3.3 C2(5) 3.4 C2	3. Creating Media Texts
	4.1, 4.2 A2	4. Reflecting on Skills and Strategies

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 12:
English as a Second Language and English Literacy Development (OME, 2007c)

7	B2	Roles and Responsibilities in ESL and ELD Programs
16	2	Strands
20	A2 C2	
36	D2, C2	Reporting on Demonstrated Learning Skills
51	A i	Antidiscrimination Education
ESLAO (ESL Level 1)		
66	A2, C2	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
67	4.1 A2 4.2 D2<1>(5) 4.3 C2	
ESLBO (ESL Level 2)		
75	4.3 A2	Reading
78	A2, C2	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
79	4.1 A2 4.2 D2<1>(5) 4.3 C2	
ESLCO (ESL Level 3)		
87	4.3 A2 i	Reading

	90	A2, C2	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
	91	4.1 A2 4.2 D2<1>(5) 4.3 C2	
ESLDO (ESL Level 4)			
	95	A2	
	99	4.3 A2 i	Reading
	103	A2, C2 4.1 A2 4.2 D2<1>(5) 4.3 C2	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
ESLEO (ESL Level 5)			
	107	A2	
	111	4.1 B2 4.3 A2	Reading
	113	4.4 C2b	Writing
	114	A4, C2 4.1 A2(2)(3) 4.2 A2 i 4.3 C2 i (5)<2>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
ELDAO (ELD Level 1)			
	122	2.2 D2<2> 4.3 B2	Reading
	127	4.1 A2 4.2 D2(5) 4.3 C2<1>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
ELDBO (ELD Level 2)			
	135	4.3 A2	Reading
	138	4.1 A2 4.2 D2(5) 4.3 C2<1>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
ELDCO (ELD Level 3)			
	147	4.1 B2 4.3 A2 i	Reading
	150	C2, A2 4.1 A2(5) 4.2 D2(5) 4.3 C2<1>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy
ELDDO (ELD Level 4)			
	153	C2	

157	4.1 B2 4.3 A2 i	Reading
161	A2, C3 4.1 A (5) 4.2 D2(5) 4.3 C2<1>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy

ELDEO (ELD Level 5)

163	A2, C2	
166	1.3 A2 2.1 A i 4.1 B2 4.3 A2 i	Reading
168	1.2 C2	Writing
170	C2, A2 4.1 A2(5)<1><2> 4.2 A2 i <2> 4.3 C2<1>	Socio-cultural Competence and Media Literacy

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10: Technological Education (OME, 2009b)

30	B1, C1	The Role of Information and Communications Technology in Technological Education
37	C2	Environmental Education in Technological Education
38	C2, A2, B2	Literacy, Mathematical literacy, and Inquiry/Research Skills
39	D2(4)	Cooperative Education and Other Forms of Experiential Learining to a Specialist High Skills Major

TIJ1O (Exploring Technologies, Grade 9, Open)

43	D2, C2	
46	2.4 C2 2.5 D2 (3)(5)	A. Technology Fundamentals
47	1.4 B2 2.1 D2(3)	B. Technological Skills
48	2.4 C2	C. Technology, the Environment and Society
49	2.4 C2b	D. Professional Practice and Career opportunities

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 11 and 12: Technological Education (OME, 2009c)

	34	B1, C1, D1(3)(4)(6)	The Roles of Information and Communications Technology in Technological Education
Computer Technology			
TEJ3M (Grade 11, University/College Preparation)			
	77	D2b	
	81	D2b(3)	
TEJ3E (Grade 11, Workplace Preparation)			
	86	D2b(3)	
TEJ4M (Grade 12, University/College Preparation)			
	94	A2b(3)	
TEJ4E (Grade 12, Workplace Preparation)			
	99	A2b(3)	

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 1-8: The Arts (OME, 2009a)

	6	A2, C2b	Roles and Responsibilities in Arts Education
	13	C2, A2	Strands in the Arts Curriculum
	31	C2	The Achievement Chart for the Arts
	38	A i	Instructional Approaches and Teaching Strategies
	41	A2<2><3>(3)(4)	
	49	A i	Antidiscrimination Education
	51	2, C2, B2, A2	Literacy, Numeracy, and Inquiry in the Arts
	55	C2, B2	The Role of School Library in Arts Program
	56	B1, C1	The Role of Information and Communications Technology
Overview of Grades 1 to 3	61	2, A2<4>	
Grade 1	69	3.1 D2(5)<4>	Drama
	71	D2<4>(3)	Music
Grade 2	79	3.1 D2(5)<4>	Drama
Grade 3	89	D2(5)<2>	Drama
	94	2.2 D2(5)<2> 2.3 C2	Visual Art
Overview of Grades 4 to 6	95	A2	
Grade 5	111	D2	Dance

	116	3.1 D2(3)<2>	Music
Grade 6	123	3.2 A2a, D2a	Dance
	127	3.1 A2, D2	Music
	129	1.3 C2a<2> 3.2 D2(3)	Visual Art
Overview of Grade 7 and 8	132	A2	Dance
	133	C2	Visual Art
Grade 7	139	2.2 D2a<2>	Drama
	142	1.3 C2a	Music
Grade 8	151	3.1 A2, D2	Drama
	154	1.2 C2a 1.4 C2a<2> 3.2 A2(3)(4)(8)	Visual Art

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10: The Arts (OME, 2010b)

	5	C2	Ideas Underlying the Arts Program
	38	C2	Multiple Literacies in the Arts
	39	C2, A2	Literacy, Mathematical literacy, and Inquiry/Research Skills
	42	B1, C1, D1b	The Role of Information and Communications Technology
Drama			
ADA1O (Grade 9, Open)			
	68	1.1 B2	Creating and Presenting
ADA2O (Grade 10, Open)			
	75	1.1 B2	Creating and Presenting
	77	2.1 A2 i	Reflecting, Responding, and Analysing

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 1 and 8: Health and Physical Education (OME, 2010a)

	59	2, A2, B2, C2	Media literacy
	61	B2	The Achievement Chart
	63	C2, B2	The Role of the School Library
	64	B1, C1	The Role of Information and Communications Technology
Grade 1	83	D2b(7)	
Grade 3	110	2.2, 2.3 D2b(7)	
	111	3.2 A2(6)(7)	
Overview of Grades 4 to 6	114	A2 i	
Grade 4	119	1.4 C2b (3) (5)	
	128	1.2 D2b(7) 1.3 D2b (3)	

Grade 5	143	D2(3)
	146	3.1 D2(3), A2<1><3><4>
	147	3.3 A2<4>
Grade 6	162	2.4 D2(3)
Grade 7	180	1.1 D2b

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10: Health and Physical Education (OME, 1999)

PPL1O (Healty Active Living Education, Grade 9, Open)

	10	D2(3)
	11	D2(3)(7)

PPL2O (Healty Active Living Education, Grade 10, Open)

	15	D2(3)
	16	D2(3)<1>
	18	A1, B1, C1 The Role of Technology

The Ontario Curriculum Grades 11 and 12: Health and Physical Education (OME, 1999)

PPL3O (Healthy Active Living Education, Grade 11, Open)

	9	B2b

PPZ3O (Healthy for Life, Grade 11, Open)

	14	A2 (3)(7)

PPL4O (Healthy Active Living Education, Grade 12, Open)

	22	A2(3)(7)
	34	A1, B1, C1 The Role of Technology

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Appendix B

Coding List for the Chinese National Curriculum Standards

Coding legend:

A = Critical thinking skills

B = Research skills

C = Communication skills

D = Media knowledge

E = Other

1 = Information Technology

2 = Media literacy

a = Mass media

b = New media

<1> = Audiences

<2> = Language

<3> = Production

<4> = Representation

(10) = History

(11) = Culture

(12) = Function

(13) = Politics

(14) = Attributes

(15) = Ethic and Safety

(16) = Health

(17) = Economy

(18) = Art

i = Reliability

ii = Credibility

Coding List for the Chinese National Curriculum Standards

Titles	Pages	Codes
Health and Physical Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011l)		
The Ideas of Curriculum Design	4	B
The Content of the course	34	A
The Evaluation Chart	63	B2
History and Society Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011h)		
The Goals of the Course	5	B1
The Content of the course	13	D2(3)(5)
	14	A ⅰ ⅱ, B2
	29, 30, 35	B
Suggestions for Implementation	40	B
History Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011f)		
The Ideas of Curriculum Design	4	B
The Goals of the Course	5, 6	B
The Content of the course	12, 13	B
	19	B, Ea
	22	Ea
	24	B
	29	Ea
	32	B
	34	B, Ea
Suggestions for Implementation	35	B
	37	C2a, E1
	38, 39, 40, 42	BA
	45	Eab
Morality and Life Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011c)		
The Content of the course	10	B2
Suggestions for Implementation	17, 22	Eab
	24	B, B1
Morality and Society Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011d)		
The Goals of the Course	6	B
The Content of the course	8	B2a
	11	B
	13	C3

	14	B, D2(3)(7), A2, C2, B2
	15	Ea, B2a
	17	B
Suggestions for Implementation	20, 22	B
	23, 24	B, A
	28	B2
Ideology and Morality Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011e)		
The Goals of the Course	6	2, B
The Content of the course		
2. The Collective, Others and I	10, 11, 12	B
3. The Society, Country and I	13	A2, C2
	15	B
	16	D2(4)
Geography Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011g)		
The Content of the course	11	B, C
	12	A
	13	B
	16	B, C
Suggestions for Implementation	20	E1
	21	B2, C2
	30	C2
	31	B2
Fine Art Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011k)		
The Content of the course	11	B
Grades 1 to 2	14	E
Grades 5 to 6	19	C2b
	21	B2b
	22	B2
	23	D2, C2
Grades 7 to 9	25	A2, B
	26	B, C
	27	C2b, B
Suggestions for Implementation	30	B2b, C2b
The Arts Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011i)		
The Fundamental Thoughts of the Course	4	A
The Content of the course		
Arts and Life, Grades 1 to 2	12	A2

Arts and Culture, Grades 3 to 6	19	B
Arts and Culture, Grades 7 to 9	20	B
Arts and Technology, Grades 1 to 2	21	D2a (5)
Arts and Technology, Grades 3 to 6	22	B, D2(3)
Arts and Technology, Grades 7 to 9	23	B
Suggestions for Implementation	26	Eab
	30	B2b, A
	39	Eab
	43	B2b
English Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011b)		
Suggestions for Implementation	25	B, Eab
	30, 42, 43	B2
Chinese Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011a)		
The Goals and Content of the Course	7	Eab
	11	E
Grades 5 to 6	12, 14	B
Grades 7 to 9	17	B, A i ii
	18	B, C
Suggestions for Implementation	24	C1
	33	Eab
Music Curriculum Standards (MEPRC, 2011j)		
The Content of the course: Grades 1 to 9	23, 24	B, E
Suggestions for Implementation	28, 35, 36	Eab

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